The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 17, 1887.

The Week.

It is scarcely remembered that in the year 1874 Secretary Fish negotiated a treaty with Great Britain in behalf of Canada which President Grant approved and sent to the Senate, covering both the fisheries and the trade relations of the two countries. This treaty was not ratified by the Senate. The Treaty of Washington having been concluded, and the fisheries questions having been settled for ten years, the Senate was not disposed to make any change in commercial regulations. The treaty as negotiated provided for reciprocal free trade with Canada in raw products, agricultural implements, and certain classes of manufactures. Included in the latter were cotton goods, boots and shoes, furniture, carriages, iron, manufactures of leather, wood, stone, paper, and India rubber, and certain kinds of woollen goods, together with machines of various descriptions. If this treaty had been ratified, it would have been of great advantage to our manufacturers, and would have settled the fishery dispute for twenty-one years certainly, and probably for all time. It would have prevented Canada from erecting hostile tariffs against our products, and would above all have secured to both countries the happiness of good neighborhood founded upon mutual interests. Looking back at this lost opportunity, the question may properly be asked whether there is, in the conceptions of the Republican party, any inherent vice and ineradicable mischief in a negotiation which received the approval of President Grant thirteen years ago. If Secretary Fish could conduct a negotiation of this sort in 1874 without the previous assent of either branch of Congress, why may not Secretary Bayard do so now, seeing that the need is much more pressing now than it was then?

Lingg's success in blowing his head off after the jailers had been already put on their guard about him by the discovery of bombs in his cell, seems to be the natural result of the extraordinary laxity and disorder which has marked the custody of the prisoners for months past. The jail appears to have been for some time very much like the scene of a fair or a political reception. On some days, in fact, as many friends of the condemned men as could make their way in were admitted and allowed to hold a noisy pow-wow with them, and load them with fruits and flowers and presents of all sorts. At no time have they been kept in any kind of seclusion. The "death watch" which was set up after the decision of the Supreme Court appears to have been a good deal of a farce, as the watch went to bed like everybody else, and when Lingg's cell was searched, it was almost as full as he chose of baggage and rubbish of every description, including a neat set of most destructive bombs. In fact, except for the iron bars and doors, the prisoners might almost as well have been kept in a hotel, and the jailers' ability to produce them for execution must have been due in a considerable degree to their forbearance or hopefulness.

Some of the horror caused by the Anarchist crimes in Chicago is again said to be finding expression in a movement for the restriction of immigration, so "as to make it impossible for the Anarchist leaders to come here to ply their vocation." But what kind of legislation would this be? How are we to know an Anarchist leader when we see him landing at any of our great ports, or coming across the frontier from Canada or Mexico? When Lingg came over, for instance, there was nothing about him to indicate that he was a leader of any sort, or even an Anarchist. He was probably an inoffensive-looking young German. There is, in fact, no way of keeping Anarchists, as such, out of the country. What we have to do is to make it so hot for them after they get here that they will wish they had never come. We must stop toying with them as if they were curious and interesting animals, and stop trying to find out whether we cannot compromise with them, or see what they will take to refrain from killing us and burning our houses. They must be closely watched by the police, and collared when they counsel murder, and remorselessly punished when they commit overt acts. Nothing will assuage their malice or abate their activity but their finding themselves faced by the courts and police with a determination more invincible than their own. But to deal with them in this way, something must be done to hasten our criminal procedure. We shall not be able to make an impression on their imagination if, as in the Chicago case, when they commit foul murders, a year and a half is allowed to intervene between the crime and the punishment. The chances of escape in that interval are very numerous in this country. It is almost a miracle that the extreme penalty should have been inflicted so long after their conviction on the four who suffered on Friday. And we must not be afraid of "making martyrs" of their leading scoundrels by hanging them. Nobody is hurt by somebody else's being considered a "martyr." What we have to prevent is their setting an example likely to be followed, and the way to do this is to make the close of their careers shameful and terrible, and to support our police in hunting them down.

The *Leader*, the daily organ of the Labor party, which was started during Henry George's canvass last year, expired on Friday, immediately after the execution of the Anarchists, over whose fate it uttered a dying groan. The editor stated frankly that the cause of the catastrophe was the indifference of the workingmen. We presume we shall have a similar story to tell before long of Mr. George's weekly organ, the *Standard*. Recent events must have had a depressing effect on this publication also, and Mr. George is much too shrewd a man to let its maintenance trench on his private savings, for this would revive the poverty which he has so laboriously abolished. The "Anti-Poverty Association" will probably go next. In fact, this institution has latterly given signs of great feebleness. It has already bitterly disappointed its members, as it has thus far simply increased their poverty by calling on them for subscriptions. After it goes, it is hard to say what will become of Dr. McGlynn. His experience of human folly and credulity might make him a good lecturer for one winter, but the lyceum in our day is very sensational and eager for novelties, and, as has been shown in a hundred cases, about nobody is the public curiosity sooner satisfied than an unfrocked priest.

Full returns from Ohio show that the first reports of great Republican gains over 1885 were unfounded. A large labor vote in Hamilton County (Cincinnati) demoralized the Democrats there, and enabled the Republicans to secure 6,500 plurality for Foraker where two years ago Hoadly had over 600 plurality. In the whole State Foraker now has about 24,000 plurality, against 17,451 in 1885, but outside of Cincinnati his plurality is actually smaller now than it was two years ago. In other words, there was absolutely no return from the tremendous uproar over the return of the Confederate flags, the noisy howl over the Jeff Davis and Gen. Jackson performances in Georgia, the wild talk about "rebellion rampant," and all the rest of that dreary nonsense. This is the most encouraging intelligence which has come from Ohio for years.

The gratifying news comes from Maryland that, upon an examination of the men elected to the new Legislature, it appears that, although Boss Gorman has saved his State ticket by a desperate effort, he is not sure of controlling the law-makers, and that there is a good chance of securing an election law which will put an end to the frauds by which alone he has retained power. Not only have the Republicans gained more than a dozen members, but among the Democrats are a number of men who are opposed to the ring. The Baltimore *American* says that "many excellent Democrats have been elected to the Legislature who will coöperate heartily in the effort to pass the Reform League Election Law, and release this city from the intolerable bondage of a prostituted ballot-box." Mr. Cowen, the leader of the Independent Democrats, is confident that "there will be a new election law—one that will guard the rights of the voters and give fair elections." In short, it is evident that the

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Mugwump contingent is being rapidly recruited from the Democrats as well as the Republicans, and that neither party can longer count with assurance upon thick-and-thin support, even in its old strongholds.

The action of the Union League Club on Thursday in passing unanimously a resolution declaring it desirable that the Legislature should pass a law providing for the printing and distribution of ballots at the public expense, and appointing a committee to draft such a bill to be presented to the next Legislature, is most encouraging. A similar committee has been authorized by the Commonwealth Club, and the two will undoubtedly work in harmony. The great lesson of the last election here was that it is useless to hope for municipal reform of any kind until a law of this kind is passed. At present our ballots are printed and distributed by gangs of political mercenaries, who are selected by no authorized power and are responsible to nobody for the honest and faithful performance of their duties. If they cheat in printing the ballots or in distributing them, there is no way of punishing them, since they are acting under no rule or law. They have the power to cheat any candidate into office, and they have exercised that power over and over again. A law which puts the business of printing and distributing the ballots into the hands of men hired by the State, sworn to faithful performance of duty, and subject to penalties in case of dereliction, will put an end to this disgraceful state of affairs almost instantly.

It appears that Secretary Fairchild has himself devised and introduced in the Treasury Department a comprehensive scheme of examinations for promotion, applicable to all the bureaus and divisions of that great Department, with its many thousands of employees. The system seems to have been carefully constructed to test the real capacity and merit of those who are examined, the largest weight in the scale of marking being given to the work upon which the person has been engaged during the past year, and the next to the duties of the bureau in which he is employed. The system has already gone into operation, and it is safe to say that, except for such slight modifications as experience may show to be wise, it will be always maintained. Every such advance in civil-service reform is not only important in itself, but even more so in the ease with which its assured success enables other steps to be taken.

Mr. W. W. Flannagan, cashier of the Commercial National Bank of this city, offers us some criticisms upon Mr. John Jay Knox's plan for refunding the 4 per cent. bonds. Mr. Flannagan shows that if the money required to pay the premium on the 4s, viz., $167,000,000, were invested in the purchase of those securities at the present market price, the saving to the Government would be $23,000,000 greater than by Mr. Knox's plan. This is true, and it only remains to find the holders of $167,000,000 of these bonds who will sell at the present market price. Mr. Knox's plan goes upon the supposition that the holders of Government bonds having twenty years to run are a greedy lot, that they do not want any change in existing arrangements, but that if there is to be a change, they see the dilemma of the Government perfectly, and intend to make all they can out of it. So far we think that Mr. Knox is right, but we should have no objection whatever to trying Mr. Flannagan's experiment before trying any other. It would be a valuable addition to our knowledge to know just how many bonds could be gathered in at 126. Nobody who has had much experience in Wall Street will imagine that the whole of anything can be bought at the market price of any particular day.

Mr. Flannagan's suggestion that if Congress will authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to lend his surplus on Government bonds at par to anybody who will furnish such security and pay 2½ per cent. interest, all the trouble about the surplus will disappear, presupposes either that the bondholders belong to the borrowing and trading class, or that their bonds held by them can be somehow made available to borrowers. It is quite certain that the bondholders, with very few exceptions, do not belong to the borrowing and trading classes. The national banks have already borrowed from the public 90 per cent. of the face value of their bonds without interest. The savings banks and life-insurance companies are lenders, and not borrowers. Accordingly, their holdings of bonds are not likely to be crowded over the Government counter to get money at 2½ per cent. The private holders are mostly of the retiring, saving, non-venturesome class, who will not let the bonds go out of their strong boxes on any terms. Nevertheless, we can see no objection to the Government's offering its surplus on that kind of security. If the amount taken is small, no harm will be done. If it is large, so much the better.

At the time of the election of Dr. Storrs to the Presidency of the American Board he requested space for deliberation, and intimated that he hoped to be able to devise some plan of uniting the warring factions over which he had been called to preside. In his letter of acceptance, just published, he puts forth his ideas of the policy to be followed. On the point of doctrine and hostility to the scheme of calling councils to examine missionary candidates, he sides squarely with the conservatives, though he makes, at the same time, remarkable concessions to the liberals—so remarkable that the *Christian Union* is quick to affirm that if the Home Secretary had acted for the last three years in the spirit of Dr. Storrs's letter, the whole controversy would have been averted. One concession consists in a willingness to have the affairs of the Prudential Committee investigated, and to have the whole matter of the relation of the Board to its constituent churches looked into by a catholic committee. This is going far towards the liberal position, but Dr. Storrs goes much further in proposing that no hard-and-fast law shall be observed in the examination of missionary candidates, that each case shall be considered by itself, and, finally, that none shall be compelled to pronounce positively against future probation, but shall only be asked to say that they do not know what will take place after death.

The *Sun* published on Sunday a page of interesting reports as to the workings of the co-operative system in sixteen cities in different parts of the Union. It summarized the results as, on the whole, very unsatisfactory, most of the undertakings in production having failed because of lack of business skill and judgment, contentions among managers, and inability to compete with the regular trade. Moreover, where the enterprises succeeded, it was often only because they were substantially changed into private or joint-stock concerns doing business after the ordinary methods, retaining sometimes scarcely a vestige of the coöperative principle on which they were founded. The *Sun* finds that the experiment of the coöperative store for the sale of goods has worked somewhat better, though only in a comparatively few cases, and nowhere with anything approaching what is represented as the English experience. In short, a study of such trial of the coöperative system as has hitherto been made in the United States must convince anybody that "the labor problem" is not to be solved off-hand by any such device.

The report of the German factory inspectors for the year 1886 deals specially with questions arising from the employment of women. It had been charged by the Socialists and others that the proportion of female labor was increasing, and that its prevalence was injurious to health and morals. The inspectors are disposed to deny the truth of both these charges. In the majority of districts the proportion of female labor has remained practically unchanged for a long series of years; in the majority of employments no distinctly injurious effects are reported. In this latter respect the experience of the German inspectors, though not in accord with common belief, is confirmed by Col. Wright's exhaustive investigations a few years ago. Both the German and the Massachusetts reports show that the ranks of crime and prostitution are not recruited from the factory. In spite of the great apparent evils of factory life, the steadying power of honest industry is strong enough to overcome them. The fact that a girl is willing to submit to hard work is also evidence that she values her character above her pleasure. There are, unfortunately, some lines of industry which are exceptions, and these are nearly the same on both sides of the Atlantic. The most demoralizing employments are those in which gangs of men and women are employed in a half-nomadic life. Of the more settled employments, cigar-making is probably the worst. The German inspectors give very unfavorable reports from cotton-spinning in certain districts. Any one familiar with cotton mills of the old style would expect such a state of things; but the actual facts with

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regard to American mill towns are not nearly so bad as one would suppose.

The general proportion of female labor in Germany is not far from the same as with us; but there is much reason to believe that differences in the method of enumeration make the result unfair to America. The percentage of female labor in the Potsdam district is 35, in the kingdom of Saxony 33, in upper Swabia 31, and in the Breslau district a little under 30. These are not unlike the American figures of 37 per cent. for New Hampshire, 33 for Rhode Island, 32 for Massachusetts, and 31 for Maryland; except that the States cited include a smaller proportion of our total population, and we have no other State with a percentage of over 27. The agricultural districts of Germany, as might be expected, show a much larger proportion than similar districts in the United States. Individual industries also show a higher percentage of female labor in Germany than with us. Thus the percentage in the textile mills of the Black Forest district is 73, while in Reuss, a small principality south of Leipsic, it actually rises as high as 90. We know of nothing at all approaching this in the United States. On the other hand, the American figures are worse than the German in showing a decided increase in the proportion of female labor in recent years.

The fate of the Suez Canal seems to have been finally settled by a convention between France and England, in which other Powers are to be invited to join. It declares that the canal shall "always remain free and open, both in war and peace, to all vessels, whether of trade or of war, without distinction of flag; and consequently the high contracting parties bind themselves to offer no obstruction to the free use of the canal in time of war any more than in time of peace," and it is never to be blockaded. The other articles of the convention provide in detail for the execution of the agreement. Now, the value to England of this neutralization of the canal is that it relieves her from the necessity of defending both the entrances to the canal, and of seeing that it is kept clear of obstructions throughout its entire length in time of war. For unless she were able to drive all hostile fleets away from the entrances, it would in time of war be of no use to her whatever. We commend the arrangement to the careful consideration of those who think the United States ought to own a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, and that, unless we owned it, such a canal would be of no value to us. The fact is, that a canal of our own across the isthmus would be absolutely useless to us without two fleets, one in the Pacific and one in the Atlantic, each strong enough to prevent any hostile fleet from blockading it, and a land force strong enough to guard it against obstruction in the interior. A more worthless and costly possession, in fact, no nation could have, than a canal which began and ended in foreign seas, and passed wholly through foreign territory. The British see this plainly enough, but some of our statesmen apparently do not.

The more the decoration scandal in Paris is inquired into, the larger it grows. Proofs of corruption on a great scale against Wilson continue to accumulate, and leave is now to be asked, it is said, of the Chambers to prosecute him criminally. He seems to have seen any number of "channels in which he could be useful" to a considerable number of people, and to have exacted very high rates of remuneration. His case is mainly interesting, however, for its probable effect on President Grévy. The reports as to his intentions in case Wilson is prosecuted vary from day to day. His last decision is said to be not to resign, come what will. Both the Radicals and Monarchists are intent on using the Wilson affair to drive him out, each hoping to be able to play its own game in the confusion which would follow. Besides this, however, the effect of the affair on European politics is necessarily considerable. The revelations virtually condemn France to a peaceful policy for a good while to come. No one would venture to go to war without knowing to what extent the corruption at the War Office had permeated the army, or without fearing that the first victory might give France a military master. This situation of course leaves Russia at the mercy of the Triple Alliance, and insures to Bulgaria the liberty of doing as she pleases.

No recent act of Lord Salisbury's has excited so much animadversion in England as the appointment of Lord Lytton, who made such a terrible failure in India under Lord Beaconsfield, to the embassy in Paris, to succeed Lord Lyons. Lord Lytton has no weight either as a diplomat or administrator, and in India gave abundant proof of featherheadedness, so that his succeeding so able a man of affairs as Lord Lyons, at a very critical period in Continental politics, has astonished the British public a good deal. It is generally considered one of the worst blows the Liberal Unionists have yet received, as it is evidently something on which Lord Salisbury would not have ventured if he were not sure that he could count on their support, no matter what he does, in order to keep Gladstone out. It is, in fact, another proof, in addition to the vigorous execution of the Coercion Bill, of the smallness of their control over ministerial policy.

Lord Salisbury's indignant comments at the Lord Mayor's dinner in London on the way in which Mr. Balfour has been attacked by the Liberals for his execution of the law in Ireland, recalls the way in which the Tories attacked Lord Spencer in 1885 for doing exactly the same thing. In that year the Tories were negotiating with the Parnellites for their support at the polls, and denouncing coercion vigorously, and promising to govern Ireland by the "ordinary law"; and Lord Spencer, who had had to enforce the Gladstone Coercion Act, came in for a liberal share of their abuse. It was not until they found that they could get office and keep it without the aid of the Parnellites that they decided to have a coercion policy of their own, and to outdo Mr. Forster by treating their political prisoners as common felons, and putting them in convict's dress, and keeping them at hard labor, under the sentence of magistrates who hold office at the pleasure of the Crown.

Nothing does more to diminish the hold of the Irish cause on the sympathy and even comprehension of foreigners than the ridiculous conduct of some of its champions. Of this O'Brien's fight with his jailer over the "prison garb" is a striking illustration. There is, of course, both meanness and cruelty in treating political prisoners like common criminals. The object of it is to humiliate and irritate—for it cannot disgrace—the victim in the eyes of the world. But if O'Brien had, along with his undoubted sincerity, a very small allowance of greatness of soul—to say nothing of sense of humor—he would scorn to let his enemies see that he could be either humiliated or irritated by the cut or color of his trousers or shirts. What can be more gratifying to the diabolical Balfour than the knowledge that he is compelling one of Britain's chief enemies to lie abed all day like a sulky boy, lest he should be dressed in clothes of the wrong color if he got up? Fancy Hampden or Sydney trying to serve "the good old cause" by passing his days in his night-shirt under a blanket. "T. P. Gill, M.P.," in the *Tribune*, as usual, tries to make the affair as ridiculous as possible by giving "the full story of the nameless deed that was perpetrated on Mr. William O'Brien on Saturday morning." The "nameless deed" was the abstraction of his trousers in the night and the substitution therefor of a blue pair of prison manufacture. According to the *Tribune*, in order to accomplish their hellish purpose "they lulled the prisoner into a feeling of security, and the outrage was committed while he dozed at early dawn." The question now is, would it be right to accept home rule from the British Government, even if it were offered, unless Mr. O'Brien's trousers were previously returned to him? It would seem not.

We think there is no corner of the civilized world in which the news of the serious character of the German Crown Prince's disease will not be received with deep sorrow. His disappearance from the scene at this juncture will be a real calamity for European politics, but, in addition to this, there is probably no man on the stage of events in the Old World more widely esteemed and respected both in his own and other countries. He is a Prussian Prince of the best type, with all the good qualities of his house and none of the bad ones; laborious, conscientious, modest, moderate in his views, a good soldier, and yet a better civilian, with deep respect for Parliamentary institutions and for public opinion, both tender plants in Germany. The general regret, too, will be deepened by the dreadful nature of the disease, and the terrible demands it makes on fortitude.

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SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, November 9, to TUESDAY, November 15, 1887, inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

ON November 11 four of the Anarchists who were convicted of participating in the Haymarket riot in Chicago on May 4, 1884, in which seven policemen were killed, were hanged in the jail of that city. These were Parsons, Engel, Fischer, and Spies. The execution was conducted in an orderly manner, and without being interfered with by sympathizers with the condemned men. The culprits maintained a bold attitude to the last, but offered no resistance to the officers who carried out the judgment of the court.

After fully considering the applications made to him for executive clemency, Gov. Oglesby commuted the death sentence of Schwab and Fielden to imprisonment for life, on the ground that these two were less directly concerned in the murders than the other five were.

About nine o'clock on the day before the executions were to take place, Lingg killed himself by means of an explosive placed in his mouth, and which lacerated the lower part of his face so that he died in a few hours. The authorities were unable to discover how he came into possession of it.

On the day Parsons, Spies, Fischer, and Engel were hanged, Schwab and Fielden were immured in the penitentiary.

The night before the executions in Chicago a procession of about 2,000 Anarchist sympathizers passed down Broadway in New York, bearing red flags and black banners inscribed with incendiary sentiments. At the City Hall the procession broke up without any act of violence having been committed.

The bodies of the dead Anarchists were given to their friends, and on Sunday they were buried by them. Mayor Roche permitted a funeral procession to march through the necessary streets to the graves, under restrictions which forbade demonstrations of undue partisanship towards the dead, without other music than dirges, and without the flags and other emblems of Anarchy. The Mayor's restrictions were partly disregarded, red ribbons were worn, and the Marseillaise Hymn was played and sung.

It is said, with the appearance of authority, that the President has offered the Postmaster-Generalship to Don M. Dickinson of Michigan in case of the promotion of Postmaster-General Vilas to the head of the Interior Department.

The friction between Secretary Lamar and Commissioner Sparks of the Land Office has at last reached a head. Mr. Sparks on November 11 wrote a letter to Secretary Lamar criticising some of his land decisions in a way very offensive to the Secretary. The latter at once sent a reply, in which he plainly informed Mr. Sparks that the alternative was now presented to the President of appointing either a new Secretary of the Interior or a new Commissioner of the Land Office. Commissioner Sparks on November 15 placed his resignation in the hands of the President.

Mrs. Cleveland was present at the opening of the Seaside Institute at Bridgeport, Conn., on November 10. The Institute is the gift of the Warner Brothers to their employees. Mrs. Cleveland at the close of the exercises shook hands with about 2,000 working-women.

On November 14, the United States Supreme Court made a decision adverse to the validity of the driven-well patent.

Sitting Bull is reported to have expressed displeasure with the Crow Indians on account of their late hostility to the whites. He advises the young bucks to remain peaceably with the agencies.

In the late elections in this State Miss Ida L. Griffin was elected School Commissioner in one of the Oswego County districts. Running as the Democratic candidate, she received 400 majority, which was 600 ahead of the regular Democratic ticket. In Wayne County Miss Cook, running as a Democrat for a similar office, was defeated.

Elihu Root, Edward Mitchell, Henry E. Howland, Robert Ray Hamilton, Granville P. Hawes, and Cephas Brainerd have been appointed by the Union League Club a committee to prepare a bill, to be presented to the next Legislature of this State, providing for the printing and distribution of election ballots by and under State authority.

On the evening of November 10 a meeting of prominent gentlemen of this city was held at the Fifth Avenue Hotel, to consider the subject of appropriately celebrating in New York the constitutional organization of the United States Government, the date for the celebration being April 30, 1889. The preliminary action has in view an invitation to the States and Territories generally to participate.

The trustees of the Protestant Episcopal Cathedral formally approved the contract for the purchase of the Leake and Watts Asylum property for the site of the cathedral. Bishop Potter and the Rev. Dr. Nevin were authorized to complete the purchase by the payment of $350,000 in cash, the other $500,000 to be paid in two years. The following permanent working committees were elected: On Constitution and Canons—The Rev. Dr. Houghton, the Rev. Dr. Huntington, Hamilton Fish, Stephen P. Nash, and George Macculloch Miller; On Finance—The Rev. Dr. E. Winchester Donald, J. Pierpont Morgan, Cornelius Vanderbilt, S. D. Babcock, and R. T. Auchmuty. On Architecture—The Rev. Dr. Morgan Dix, the Rev. Dr. Cady, W. W. Astor, and J. R. Roosevelt.

President Bayles of the New York Health Department has written Mayor Hewitt a letter with reference to the probability of cholera getting into the city, saying that he does not at present consider danger from this source as imminent. Secretary Bayard has informed Mayor Hewitt that he has addressed a note to the Italian Minister urging him to request his home Government to have a thorough inspection made of vessels leaving Italian ports for this country.

The Electrical Subway Commission of this city began on November 15 to use asphalt in the construction of the wireways.

Coal-dealers in New York asserted last week, in reply to inquiries relative to the then prevailing shortage of fuel, that there would be no scarcity worth speaking of during the winter.

Judge Barrett on November 14 refused to grant the injunction against the New York Club asked for by Edward Gebhard, to restrain the Club from interfering with his rights as a member. The case grew out of a dispute over a bill rendered by Mr. Gebhard for legal services to the Club.

The Columbus, Hocking Valley and Toledo Railroad has brought a suit against Winslow, Lanier & Co. to recover $8,000,000. The suit grows out of the firm's connection with Judge Stevenson Burke.

The banking firm of A. S. Hatch & Co. in this city made an assignment on November 14.

J. Randolph Tucker, John Goode, and Gov. Fitzhugh Lee appear as rivals of John S. Barbour for the Virginia Senatorship as Riddleberger's successor.

Mayor Latrobe of Baltimore, offended by criticisms made of him in the late elections, refused to appear on the platform with S. T. Wallis on the occasion of unveiling the statue of Chief-Justice Taney.

In the annual meeting of the General Conference of the Congregational Churches in Middletown, beginning on November 9, a hot discussion on future probation was avoided by referring the whole matter to a committee which will report next year.

The Rev. Dr. Leonard Woolsey Bacon was dismissed from his pastorate in Savannah, Ga., on Sunday by a vote of 185 to 119 of the members of the Independent Presbyterian Church. The dissatisfaction with him arose from utterances he was alleged to have made relative to the social position of the negroes.

The balance of the building construction account of the Young Men's Christian Association in Philadelphia, amounting to $200,000, which has been carried by a mortgage, has been cancelled through liberal subscriptions from over 389 persons.

At a meeting of the Board of Trustees of Princeton College on November 10, President McCosh formally presented his resignation, to take effect at the beginning of the third term of the current year.

Mr. Joseph H. Choate of New York has given the Faculty of Williams College its choice of three courses for a settlement of the hazing case in which his son was a victim: To suspend the Committee who signed the newspaper article purporting to explain the case, to suspend the class, or to allow him to take one of the Committee to court and make a test case. The Faculty called a meeting of the Sophomore Class to discuss the subject. On November 15 twenty-one members of the Sophomore Class made a confession to the faculty of having taken part in the hazing, and sentence of suspension was passed upon at least nine of them.

F. H. Ringe of California has offered to erect a new City Hall, an industrial school, and a high-school for boys in Cambridge, Mass., where he formerly lived. The offer has been accepted. He had already bestowed a public-library building.

On account of the delay of the local government of Manitoba in proceeding with the building of the Red River Valley Railroad, to connect with the United States roads, it is suspected that "boodlers" are at work undermining the enterprise so far as public officials control it.

Settlement of the affairs of the Northwestern Manufacturing and Car Company was concluded on November 11 in a way entirely satisfactory to Senator Sabin and his friends.

On November 9 Miss Clara Louise Kellogg, the singer, was married to Carl Strakosch, in Elkhart, Indiana.

Senator Joseph R. Hawley of Connecticut was married to Miss Edith Horner in Philadelphia on November 15. Miss Horner is an English lady who has been employed as a nurse in the Blockley Hospital in Philadelphia.

Dr. Noah Porter personally denies the report that he was engaged upon a new revision of Webster's Dictionary. The publishers say also that there will be no revision of the work for several years.

The trial of E. S. Wheeler of New Haven, charged with obtaining money on worthless notes after his bankruptcy, began in that city on November 15.

Jesse Pomeroy, the well-known "boy murderer," who is now a full-grown man, made another attempt to escape from Massachusetts State Prison by sawing through bars of his cell with a piece of steel.

Young Robert McCreary, son of ex-Gov. McCreary of Kentucky, shot William Schilling on the street on November 12. Schilling died the next day.

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Sydney F. Shelbourne, a member of the Board of Council of Electrical Engineers, was killed at the American Institute Fair on November 9, by being caught in a powerful and rapidly revolving fly-wheel.

FOREIGN.

Three courses of treatment for the throat disease from which the German Crown Prince is suffering are considered practicable: Laryngotomy, or the total excision of the larynx; a partial excision, with tracheotomy; or another of Mackenzie's internal operations. The Crown Prince has definitively declined the first, which is dangerous.

After an examination of his throat on Friday, November 11, the Crown Prince took a walk in his private grounds at San Remo. He appeared to be in excellent health, and his voice was fresh and intelligible at a distance of ten paces. The Crown Prince has received immense numbers of letters and telegrams of sympathy from all the courts and sovereigns of Europe. News from San Remo on November 14 was to the effect that his condition was improved, and that the swelling of the larynx was subsiding.

A rumor was telegraphed from London on November 15 that Emperor William had made up his mind to abdicate in favor of his grandson, Prince William of Prussia.

The Czar is expected to arrive in Berlin on Friday, November 18, and will be received with brilliant manifestations of welcome. Among the festivities in preparation are a grand dinner to be given by the Emperor William, if his health will permit, and a gala season of opera. The Czar has requested Emperor William not to attempt, on account of his great age and infirmities, to meet him at the station on his arrival in Berlin.

In the Caffarel trial in Paris it was proved by the manufacturers that two of M. Wilson's letters, dated May and June, 1884, were written upon paper which was manufactured in October, 1885. This revelation has caused a sensation. The newspapers now declare that it is impossible that M. Wilson should be allowed to escape.

A Paris despatch, November 10, says: "The fraudulent substitution by M. Wilson of harmless for incriminating letters to Mme. Limousin is necessarily prejudicial to him, and a magisterial investigation will now take place. The Chamber will then probably sanction his arrest, and President Grévy's resignation will follow."

On November 10 President Grévy caused an exciting scene in Cabinet Council by declaring emphatically that he would not dismiss M. Wilson.

M. Victor de Lesseps, in a letter published on November 9, states that his father, Count Ferdinand de Lesseps, will soon make another trip to Panama, and repeats the promise that the canal will be opened in February, 1890, and that no further loan for the canal will be required.

Señor Tanco Armero, the agent of the Colombian Government, has made public the results of his latest inspection of the work on the Panama Canal. He says he travelled over the entire route and studiously observed the condition of affairs. He avers that while the annual reports that have been made by Count de Lesseps are partial and unsatisfactory, and inadequate as a presentation of the true situation, the writings of the detractors of the enterprise are exaggerated, on the other hand, and not worthy of credit. The Colombian agent makes the following statement with reference to the work: "According to the plans, the number of cubic metres to be excavated in order to open the canal was 143,000,000, and to these figures must be added the quantity of earth to be moved in order to lead off the waters of the Chagres, Obispo, and Rio Grande Rivers, which amounts to 18,000,000 cubic metres, making the total excavation amount to 161,000,000 cubic metres; and as the amount taken out up to the end of August of the present year was 33,925,230 cubic metres, according to the figures of the company, there yet remains 127,074,770 cubic metres to be removed. It is estimated that the cost of controlling the water of the Chagres River will be $94,340,000. The cost of completing the canal is estimated to be 3,012,495,400 francs, or $600,000,000." To the claim of the company that 15,000 men are employed on the work, and that the effective force of the men and machinery is equivalent to 615,000 men, the agent says: "I firmly believe, and without risk of erring, there have never been more than 5,000 men employed, and the work effected confirms this belief. If work were executed equal to that which 615,000 men could do, then by working only three hours per month they would move 1,000,000 cubic metres. Then 3,075,000 cubic metres would be removed daily, or 92,000,000 in thirty days, and the canal would be finished in one month and a half. This is flattering, but it is purely illusory. The truth is, that the greater number of the working sections are almost deserted, and the laborers seen on the works are very few to the number which should be employed. In an undertaking of this magnitude, in which time is the most important factor, laborers should have been obtained in abundance from the first, and from 30,000 to 40,000 workmen should have been put to work. The funds were sufficient, and should have been devoted to that purpose."

It is now settled practically that two of the best known Parisian clubs are to be amalgamated. These are the "Cercle des Champs Élysées"—better known by its old name of "Cercle Impérial"—and the "Cercle de l'Union Artistique"—vulgarly known as "Les Mirlitons."

On Sunday, November 13, an almost unprecedented riot occurred in London, growing out of an attempt by agitators to hold a public meeting in Trafalgar Square. Four thousand policemen took possession of the approaches to the square at an early hour. The paraders were headed by bands of music and they carried banners and mottoes. The police attacked and dispersed each group as it arrived near the square. Fierce fights took place on the Strand, Northumberland Avenue, Whitehall, Pall Mall, and other adjacent streets. One of the societies succeeded in entering the square, but was repulsed after a bloody fight, in which Commoner Graham was seriously injured. Mr. Graham was subsequently arrested for attacking the police. At 4:30 P. M. the crowd in the vicinity of the square numbered 100,000, and the police were powerless to disperse them thoroughly. Cavalry and infantry were summoned to the assistance of the police, but no charge was made, as the people of their own accord began to disperse at dusk. A large number of people and policemen were wounded in the contest.

Mr. Gladstone, in a letter to the Provost of Dalkeith, says: "The excesses of the Government are beyond all expectation. Events like those at Mitchelstown, however, plainly represent the true questions before the nation, proving that the spirit of tyranny of Cromwell and Strafford still exists, though, happily, without power."

Lord Salisbury's Guildhall speech on November 9 confirmed the theory of his adhesion to the triple alliance with modifications. Beyond this the speech contained nothing new, except a hint that the power of appeal under the Crimes Act will be lessened, if not destroyed entirely, as well as an indication that the Irish tactics in the next session will be severely repressed.

A late London political rumor is to the effect that William Henry Smith will soon resign the leadership of the House of Commons to Mr. Balfour, which will necessitate the latter's resignation of the Irish Secretaryship.

The London papers of November 12 generally expressed approval of the result of the Anarchist trials. One or two spoke of the sternness of the Americans in dealing with the present offences against law and order as a lesson for Ireland and Gladstone.

A London *News* correspondent in Ireland, writing on November 10, says that the peasantry have plenty of potatoes to live on, but no money. Taken as a whole, the country never was more impoverished.

Most Rev. Bernard Finigan, D.D., Roman Catholic Bishop of the Diocese of Kilmore, died on November 10.

The Corporation of the city of London are about to issue their bronze medal to celebrate the founding of the Imperial and Colonial Institute. It is three and one-half inches in diameter, and has on one side an historic design of the interior of the Guildhall, and on the obverse, in relief, the royal arms, the city arms, and those of India and the chief colonies. The number to be issued is, it is stated, limited to four hundred and fifty, and the die is to be surrendered to the Corporation, so that no more medals can be struck.

A number of Baptist churches and clergymen in London will follow Mr. Spurgeon's example by withdrawing from the Baptist Union. Among them are the Rev. Mr. Brown of the East London Tabernacle, the Rev. Mr. Davies of a Brighton church, the Rev. Mr. Burton of Dalston, and the Rev. Mr. Spurgeon of Croydon. The directors of the Pastors' College will convoke a conference to consider joint action on the secessions. The Nottingham Tabernacle has passed a resolution of sympathy with Mr. Spurgeon.

A burlesque drama by Dickens, three or four years before the 'Pickwick Papers' were written, is to be included in Kitton's forthcoming collection of portraits of the novelist.

It is said that Sir Charles Dilke is urged by his friends to return to political life, and that he maintains a stubborn attitude in opposition to their wishes. It is given out that a collection of letters has come into his hands which those who have inspected them declare furnish absolute disproval of Mrs. Crawford's story in the scandal which caused the withdrawal of Dilke from public life.

Sir George Stephen, President of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, left for England on November 11 for the purpose of completing arrangements with the Imperial Government for the construction of three steamships for the Pacific Mail service. They will be built on the Clyde, and are to be delivered by January, 1889.

A conference of leading men from five of the important provinces of Canada, held recently in Quebec, unanimously adopted a resolution favoring unrestricted reciprocity of trade between the United States and Canada. The Toronto *Globe* says: "The action of the Quebec Conference should have a large influence upon the Commissioners about to meet in Washington. They cannot now doubt what Canada wants. The British representatives cannot but perceive that the Ottawa Government, if it pretends that Canadians in general do not wish for commercial union, does not represent the Dominion truly."

A correspondent of the London *Times* at Calcutta writes that the jubilee subscriptions to Lady Dufferin's fund have grown favorably; but that they need to be enormously increased before the amount available can be used to perceptible advantage in alleviating the condition of women in India, of whom there are, according to the latest census, 124,000,000.

The Agriculture Building of the Belgian Government was destroyed by fire on November 14.

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A WORD TO SOCIAL PHILOSOPHERS.

Gov. Oglesby's decision about the Anarchists gave, we think, general satisfaction, particularly as the distinction he made only saved two of the criminals from the gallows. Although there was no legal difference, nevertheless, there was, it was generally admitted, some slight moral difference between the cases of Fielden and Schwab and those of their confederates. The Governor's recognition of this difference undoubtedly heightened the moral effect of the penalty inflicted on the others, and will rob Anarchist orators hereafter of some of their inflammatory material. The commutation of the sentence of the two who are to remain in prison will doubtless soon furnish an issue to the State politicians, but it will be a much less formidable one than a similar indulgence to six or seven would have been.

The execution of the four wretches who suffered on Friday is, however, whatever we may say of its justice or necessity, a very solemn event in American history. It would fifty, or even thirty, years ago have been considered wildly improbable that, within this century, at least five men would have to be hanged in the most prosperous city in the American Union for running amuck against the whole community with bombs and pistols, and that they would have tens of thousands of sympathizers in various parts of the country. A man who predicted this in the streets of Chicago any year before the war would undoubtedly have been considered insane. Nevertheless, it has come to pass, and we must, dreadful as it is, try to get some profit or warning out of it, individual as well as national. The lesson it conveys is, in our belief, one which it behooves our social philosophers, including under that term philanthropic clergymen, and college professors, and labor speculators, no less than the poor Anarchists, to ponder diligently. Some of them—we say it advisedly—have gone and are going far to share in the blood-guiltiness of this diabolical Anarchist agitation by the encouragement they give in their lectures and essays and "conferences" to the notion that every man who saves or acquires in any way more money than his neighbor does wrong to that neighbor, and that in short the owners of accumulated property are a band of robbers. What professor, or preacher, or philanthropist, except McGlynn, we shall be asked, has preached any such atrocious doctrine? Every professor, and preacher, and philanthropist, we answer, who tells crowds of ignorant and poor men that there is something wrong in the present constitution of society without showing what the wrong is and how it is to be remedied; and every professor and preacher who gives poor and ignorant men to understand that in his opinion the earth supplies the means of "abolishing poverty" if its products were only fairly distributed.

Every ignorant and poor man who hears this vague talk from this source, treats it as a confession of guilt on the part of the people who own anything or are not dependent on daily wages. It keeps him in a constant state of bitterness and unrest. It makes honest labor hateful, and the very sight of people richer than himself a cause of irritation to him. It makes listening to the blatherskite of socialist agitators the great distraction and solace of his life. It fills him with suspicion of or hostility to everything which good men and good women try to do, either in legislation, or administration, or in charity, to cultivate his ambition and self-dependence and to increase his chances of rising in the world by his own exertions. And, finally, it prepares him for the arrival of the bold and desperate fanatic like Lingg, who tells him that he has talked enough, that the time has come for action, and that he will show him how to get his due from the "capitalists."

Nothing can well be more instructive than the history of this ruffian's connection with the Chicago crime. Anarchism in one form or another had been simmering and stewing in that city for ten years, and was every year reënforced partly under the influence of the indifference or contempt of the local authorities, and partly under the influence of the encouragement given it by social speculators and labor reformers in other parts of the country. The Anarchists met and paraded and harangued a good deal year by year, but nobody took them seriously, though the duty of murder and arson was one of the favorite themes at their meetings and in their periodicals. Finally, Lingg, the man of action, arrived from Europe with the art of making bombs, and acted as the spark which was to produce the explosion. He found the materials all ready for him—that is, a horde of excited men, who had worked themselves into the belief that they were the victims of intolerable wrong for which there was no legal remedy. In nine months after his arrival he had them ready to use his bombs; we know with what result.

Now, there is not a city in the country in which a little circle of malcontents of this description may not be found—that is, of men who think there is a fund belonging to the public in general which the owners of property have got hold of, and refuse to divide with the poor, and who are gradually learning to hate every man who saves, and wears good clothes. Moreover, there are demagogues, both native and foreign, springing up in every direction, some sincere and some knavish, ready to make a living out of their delusions, or to express them in some sort of crime. Into the hands of these social pests, clergymen among us in their pulpits, and professors in their lecture-rooms, are every day playing, either by vague intimations that there is shortly going to be a great "social revolution," in which we shall all lie on our backs and make machinery do our work for us, or that the present distribution of property is in the main the result of cheating, and that there must be something rotten in a state of society in which a few men can accumulate large fortunes. What the remedy is, how human society is ever to be at any time anything but the product of human character and culture, they never tell us; but they intimate that if the industrious do not promptly divide more freely with the idle, the frugal with the improvident, the workers with the blatherskites, there will be trouble, mysterious in its nature and unknown in amount. If the Chicago tragedy teaches anything, it teaches most impressively that this fooling should cease.

THE RIGHT OF PROCESSION.

The dispersion of a quasi-political procession in London on Sunday, and the permission granted in New York on Thursday last to an Anarchist procession to parade in the public streets, suggest the inquiry whether there is any natural and indefeasible right on the part of particular societies and crowds of people to occupy public streets and places for the purposes of demonstration and in order to show their strength. We are so accustomed to a free-and-easy use of the words free speech, right of petition, right of assemblage, etc., that we are apt to confound these things with quite different matters. The right of free speech does not carry with it the right to speak on another man's premises without his permission, or in a public hall without paying for the use of it. It does not convey the right to burn gunpowder, or to beat drums, or to make noises disagreeable to one's neighbors. The right of petition manifestly does not require that a petition be conveyed by all the signers to the officers of the Government or the Legislature to whom it is addressed. The right of assemblage does not imply the right to interrupt street traffic or to exclude from public places the ordinary movement of people therein. Speech, petition, and assemblage are therefore in principle separate and distinct from street gatherings and public gorges of every kind. Human liberty is no more assaulted or endangered by forbidding such assemblages than by a policeman telling an ordinary foot passenger to "move on."

If the streets and squares of a city are simply public easements to enable people to move to and fro, the use of them for parades, processions, and meetings is a privilege to be sought, not a right to be demanded. It is a proper subject for regulation by statute. If the use of streets for such purposes is not a natural right, like those of life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness, or a constitutional right, like those of petition and habeas corpus, it ought to be lodged in the discretion of the authorities controlling the streets, to be granted or withheld upon their general responsibility. In this respect the law of New York is defective. It presumes that parades, processions, and public meetings held in the open air will always be orderly and proper, and that the chief officer of such gatherings will see to it that the orders of the police are obeyed. It accordingly puts no restraint on processions except that it prohibits them from marching on railway tracks or across such tracks in a manner to interfere with the movement of cars, or from marching on Sunday (except funeral processions). It requires the chief officer of the procession to give six hours' notice of the intention to parade to the police authorities, who may then designate how much space in width the procession may occupy. In fact, the law of New York recognizes the

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right of procession, and virtually hands over the streets to every sort of parade, even of those who carry black flags, red flags, or foreign flags, and who avow the intention to subvert the Government. The law of Illinois, as quoted by the Mayor of Chicago the other day, is much more rational. No procession can use the streets without the permission of the chief officer of the city, who may prescribe such conditions and regulations in each particular case as he chooses.

The brief letter of Mr. Gladstone shows that the London procession, although avowedly political in its character, was a dangerous collection. There was mixed up with it a large element of "the unemployed." The unemployed paraded last year in the shop windows along Piccadilly and Oxford Street, and helped themselves to a large amount of portable property. When a procession of this sort gets under way, it is joined by all the tramps, roughs, pickpockets, and ticket-of-leave men, all who have committed crime, and all who are on the lookout for a chance to commit crime. A great hurly-burly where the police cannot act freely, and where nobody can be identified, is what they are always on the lookout for. The employment they are in want of is robbery shorn of unpleasant consequences. Evidently the usual amount of this material had been sopped up along the road to Trafalgar Square. The Government was bound to anticipate these accessions to the crowd, because it had had sufficient warning of their character last year. It was bound accordingly to prevent the meeting in Trafalgar Square upon the same principles that it would prevent a bonfire from being started in close proximity to a lot of combustible material. That the Government had the legal right to prevent the meeting in Trafalgar Square is undoubted.

The recent Anarchist parade in New York was both a disgrace and a danger. It was a disgrace to permit a polyglot foreign rabble to march through the streets with black flags and red flags, or any flag except that of the American republic. It was a danger to permit such a rabble to collect together at all, considering that their fundamental creed is that violent death should be visited upon all who have property and refuse to hand it over to the first comer. Since the laws do not vest the police or the Mayor with authority to prevent such assemblages, the Legislature should lose no time in conferring such authority upon them.

A NARROW MARGIN.

SINCE the result of last week's election in New York State was known, it has been universally accepted by both parties throughout the country as settled that President Cleveland will be renominated by the Democrats without any opposition. In view of the result in Virginia, it is also generally admitted by Republicans, and is certainly not doubted by any unprejudiced observer, that the Democratic candidate in 1888 will again receive the support of the entire South.

Many Democrats take it for granted that Mr. Cleveland's reëlection is also assured. In one contingency there is no doubt that they are right. If the Republicans should renominate Mr. Blaine, Mr. Cleveland would unquestionably beat him far worse than before. Mr. Blaine could not again conduct a successful intrigue for "the Irish vote," and, on the other hand, he could not again hold to his support the tens of thousands of Republicans who only supported him under protest before, because they believed that Mr. Cleveland's election would "ruin the country." If the Republicans are to be guilty of such stupendous folly as presenting again the tainted and dangerous candidate whose nomination defeated them in 1884, then indeed is the election of 1888 already decided in Mr. Cleveland's favor.

But it is safe to take it for granted that the Republicans will not be so crazy as to renominate Mr. Blaine. Suppose that they offer the country neither Mr. Blaine nor a Blaine dummy (who would be scarcely less weak than Mr. Blaine himself), but a first-class candidate upon a first-class platform. What then will be the situation? Mr. Cleveland will have 153 electoral votes from the "Solid South," and must have 201 to win. In 1884 he secured 219, carrying New York (36), Indiana (15), New Jersey (9), and Connecticut (6). He could have spared from the list either Indiana alone, or New Jersey and Connecticut together; but New York was essential in any case, and with it either the large Western State or both of the small Eastern States.

It is possible that Mr. Cleveland may carry some Northern State in 1888 which he did not in 1884. New Hampshire gave only 961 Republican plurality on the vote for Congressmen last year, and only 461 for Governor, and although the poll was not a full one, it is evident that the Republicans will have enough to keep them busy in holding the State next year. There are one or two other Northern States that voted against Mr. Cleveland before, which it is within the range of possibility for him to carry next time. But the Democrats will place no dependence upon what would be at best but happy accidents. They will rest their hopes upon carrying New York, and with it the other three Northern States which they had in 1884.

It is worth while for all concerned to keep in mind that in every one of these four States the margin is very narrow. Indiana gave Mr. Cleveland only 6,427 plurality over Mr. Blaine in 1884, and in 1886 it elected a Republican Lieutenant-Governor by 3,324 plurality, and seven Republican Congressmen out of thirteen. New Jersey gave Mr. Cleveland only 4,412 plurality over Mr. Blaine in 1884, and in 1886 gave the Republican candidates for Congress 6,906 more votes than the Democratic. Connecticut gave Mr. Cleveland only 1,276 plurality over Mr. Blaine in 1884, and in 1886 elected a Republican Governor by 1,898 plurality. New York gave Mr. Cleveland but 1,047 plurality over Mr. Blaine in 1884, and in 1887 has given the Democratic candidate for Secretary of State only about 18,000 plurality.

Each one of these four States is so close that the scales are turned by the independent vote. New York would have gone Republican this year if the Republican ticket, platform, and party management had not caused the independent voters to give the preference to the Democrats. Connecticut rejected a bad Democratic candidate for Governor by independent votes in 1886, as she had, by the same votes, rejected a bad Republican candidate for President in 1884. Indiana elected a Republican Lieutenant-Governor in 1886 because her independent voters were displeased with the record of Democratic administration and legislation in the State during the previous two years. New Jersey has just elected a Republican Legislature because her independent voters were disgusted with the last Democratic Legislature.

It is thus plain that the margin in each of these States is a very narrow one. How any one of them will go next year depends absolutely upon the independent vote. The Republican managers can so affront that vote as to insure a Democratic plurality in each by offering it only the old alternative of 1884. The Democratic Administration can disaffect it by yielding to the spoilsmen, and incline it to support a good Republican candidate. Mr. Cleveland was persuaded by the Democratic managers to express the opinion that "every man in Massachusetts who is in sympathy with the Administration and wishes to secure victory next year, should heartily support Lovering in Massachusetts in this campaign." The Massachusetts Mugwumps repl. d by voting against Lovering, whom they considered a bad candidate, and thus nearly doubling last year's plurality for Ames. The moral is plain: the independent vote can only be secured by deserving it.

THE SILVER QUESTION.

THE silver question has not been a topic of public discussion for the better part of a year. International bimetallism has been on the anvil very much as usual, but this is not what is meant by the silver question in the United States. The silver party in this country never cared a fig what other nations were willing to do. Their ideas were aptly phrased in the query, "What have we to do with abroad?" And in all this they were quite right. What they wanted was a cheap dollar. They believed they should get it by coining silver dollars at a certain monthly rate, regardless of the public demand for them. As their opponents believed this also, they became more set than ever in their determination to multiply silver dollars, and less inclined to give heed to M. Cernuschi, Mr. Dana Horton, and the other academic bimetallists, whose warnings that silver coinage in the United States was hurting the good cause in Europe have always fallen upon deaf ears in Congress.

The silence that has fallen upon this vexed theme is due to a doubt that has been rising, among both silver and anti-silver men, whether the continued coinage of that metal under existing law will ever bring a cheaper dollar into the channels of business, or enable anybody to pay his debts at less than one hundred cents gold value. In other words, the question engaging the thoughts of those who really think on the subject at all is, whether any conceivable addition to the Government's

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stock of silver dollars will, of its own force and without further legislation, upset the gold standard and substitute that of silver in its place. If this question be answered in the negative, the silver men will have no motive to keep the mint going after the currency demand of the country is fully satisfied. On the other hand, their opponents will cease to borrow trouble about silver, will look upon the accumulation of that class of dollars in the Treasury as they look upon other unnecessary taxes, of which we have an over-plentiful supply. When both parties shall have reached this state of mind, the law will be changed and silver coinage will be limited to the wants of the community, just as the subsidiary coinage is; for unless the silver men are strong enough to pass a free-coinage act, their game will have been lost, and they can have no more reason than others have to maintain an unnecessary tax.

We ventured some time since to express the belief that the manufacture of silver dollars on Government account would not of itself change the standard of value from gold to silver. We have not seen any argument controverting that position. It was manifestly impossible, at the time when the Silver Act was passed, to foresee its ultimate effects, because it was a complete anomaly in the world of finance. Nothing like it had ever been seen or imagined. No Government had ever before bought bullion and made money of full legal tender out of it, for sale to its own people at a profit. There was a whole chapter of paradoxes in the law as it was finally passed. No analogy could be drawn from the experience of any other country, because none had had such an experience. There had been single-standard countries and double-standard countries and "limping standard" countries —the last being the condition of France and the nations of the Latin Union that have ceased coining silver, but still retain a great quantity of it in circulation as full legal tender. There had never been an experiment made like ours. Therefore nobody could tell how it would turn out.

There were also unknowable elements in the problem. Nobody could then foresee the decay of the national-bank circulation. Still less could anybody predict what would be the demand for paper currency arising from the growth of the country, the settlement of the far West and Southwest, the development of industry, and the influx of immigration. What we see now is, that all these things have conspired to give room for more than $200,000,000 of silver certificates, and that the demand for them has not ceased. While we consider this kind of circulating medium costly and unscientific, and a bad speculation in metal, it is nevertheless true that there has been an efficient demand for more currency than could be legally supplied in any other way, either by the banks or by the Government, and that this demand has reimbursed to the Government about all that it has thus far expended for silver bullion.

The demand for silver certificates is simply a demand for something that will serve the purpose of domestic exchanges. Greenbacks or bank notes would be taken with equal readiness if they were to be had. As they are not to be had, the next best thing is taken, and this happens to be silver certificates, since gold certificates are not issued of a less denomination than $20. What the future demand for them may be, it would be idle to speculate. Of course a time will come when the country will be saturated with them and can absorb no more. When the public cease to buy them, the excess of silver dollars will lie where they are made. They will become an idle and inert hoard, but they will not, without further legislation of a radical kind, change the monetary standard of the country from gold to silver.

ITALY AND THE VATICAN.

ITALY, October 25, 1887.

THE Papal jubilee and the presence of jubilee pilgrims in Rome, so far from reopening the question of reconciliation between Italy and the Vatican, are but fresh proofs that there is no special question to be settled, or at all events the present Italian Ministry are bent on ignoring it. Despite the declarations to this effect made by Crispi and Zanardelli on entering the Cabinet, nothing could persuade the extreme parties, namely, the ultra-clericals and the ultra-radicals, that Crispi's journey to Friedrichsruhe had not for its chief, or sole, object to consult with Bismarck as to the best means of finding a *modus vivendi*. Simple Conservatives and old-school Liberals did not fall into this error. For one of the chief leaders of the party of action outside and of the Left in Parliament to have opened his lips to a foreign statesman on the question would have implied the renunciation of the very corner-stone of the Liberal creed. When Rome was first proclaimed capital of Italy, the Liberals opposed the law on Papal guarantees, but were outvoted on the main question, and the law proclaiming the person of the Pope sacred and inviolable, to whom, as to the King, royal honors were to be paid, and providing an income of 3,325,000 francs, exempt from all taxes, the free possession of the Vatican, of Sa. Maria Maggiore, of the villa of Castel-Gandolfo, with all the edifices, gardens, and lands appertaining, is still the law of the land. But when it was proposed that the Papal guarantees should be made a subject of international discussion and law, the Liberals, by their vigorous and unanimous protest, won the day. We are but just freed from the material oppression of foreign armies, and you would place Italy under the moral tutorship of the Catholic Powers? they asked; and, the republic being just then proclaimed in France, and monarchy not yet firmly established in Rome, the point was yielded with regret.

That same law, however, rendered it binding on the Italian Government to defend, even by force, all future councils and conclaves, and it so happened that at the death of Pio Nono, which occurred on the 7th of February, 1878, just one month after that of Victor Emanuel, Crispi was Home Minister, with Depretis President of the Cabinet; and the House, prorogued after the new King had taken the oath, had been reconvoked for the 20th of February. In the young King's first speech there was not a single allusion to the Vatican, to the Pope, or even to religion, save where he promised "religious observance of free institutions as the one safeguard against all perils." Crispi, on whom devolved the "defence of the conclave," learning that the cardinals trusted so little to the Government that they had actually decided on holding the conclave elsewhere than in Rome, took his precautions to exclude the shadow of pretence for foreign intervention, and, instead of convoking Parliament at once, delayed doing so until the 7th of March—this, of course, with the full concurrence of the young King. "Never," says a Catholic writer, "did the *fathers*," as he classically calls the cardinals, "enjoy such unlimited liberty as during the conclave of 1878, to the infinite surprise of the oldest among them, who had a vivid remembrance of the foreign and Roman pressure brought to bear during the conclaves of Leo XII., Pius VIII., Gregory XVI., and Pius IX." In two days the conclave commenced and ended with the proclamation of Leo XIII., who, if he had had his own way, would have blessed the populace from the *outer* balcony of St. Peter's, thus initiating a reconciliation with the Italian Government—all gain to the Vatican, all loss to the Quirinal. This postponement of Parliament gave umbrage to a large section of the Liberal party, who styled it "a truckling to the Papacy, an offence to the King and the representatives of the nation." The protests, coupled with animadversions on an act of an entirely private character, induced Crispi to resign on the 3d of March, before Parliament met, but he had had time to define his Vatican policy. It was not a caving in, but simply the avoidance of the appearance of pressure.

As with the conclave, so with the jubilee and jubilee pilgrims: common law and common courtesy are duly enforced, there has been no need for the display of military or police. A few good-humored articles in the officious newspapers, reminding the Romans that *noblesse oblige*, that pilgrims to the Vatican are as much their guests as pilgrims to the Pantheon; some significant warnings to the pilgrims to put on their best manners with their best clothes, that offences against the law or insults to the Government or people will no more be permitted in guests than in citizens, have sufficed. The pilgrimage causes no disorder, and no other sensation in Rome save content to the shopkeepers, omnibus and cab drivers—if we except a strike on the part of the latter because the former were supposed to have received an undue share from the purses of the pious pilgrims.

These being the facts, it is scarcely needful to repeat that, so far from Crispi and Bismarck having met to discuss the Vatican, it was a subject not alluded to between them, unless with a smile. Even that meeting occasioned no surprise among the members or friends of the old historical Left. A Prussian alliance was their ideal long before it took place; Bismarck versus Napoleon, a to-be-united Germany against imperial France, was the dream dreamt out by those who desired moral as well as material unity, who dreaded Napoleonic influence far more than imperial soldiers. I remember that Francesco Cucchi, who paid us a visit at Garibaldi's headquarters in France, to inform the survivors of the Mille that they had forfeited their pension by taking arms under the French Republic, was even then on a return visit from Berlin. But the general public were only made aware of the fact when Bismarck asked Crispi after "his old friend Cucchi." Quite other subjects than Vatican policy or any other internal question led to the very natural meeting between the two statesmen. There is no country in Europe by which peace is so desired, or to which it is so absolutely necessary, as Italy; and whereas the alliance between Italy, Germany, and Austria is an accomplished fact, nothing would be now more distasteful to the party in power and their partisans than a war between Germany and France. Despite the constant provocations of the French press

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there would be a terribly divided feeling among the Italians if ever it were necessary to enter into an offensive alliance against France, which, as a republic, still possesses invincible attractions for the radicals—to call socialists and republicans, internationalists, and the few communists, by one common name. Then, again, Italy has a very special interest in the settlement of the Eastern question. The autonomy of the nations in the Balkan Peninsula is another article of their creed. This question and that other of the Mediterranean, Italy being resolved that this sea of theirs shall never become a French or Russian lake, were themes sufficiently interesting to occupy the forty-eight hours of the interview at Friedrichsruhe.

That the Pope himself and all Catholics are mortified and aggrieved at this indifference shown to themselves and their claims is manifest in every sentence of the Catholic press, but there is no help for it. It takes two to make a quarrel, and "Massa Crispi says: Won't." Yet if anything were wanting to show that the present Government is far from yielding an iota to the Vatican or from desiring reconciliation, the question of the monument to Giordano Bruno supplies the hiatus. In a sort of diary entitled 'Avvisi di Roma' one reads: "On Thursday morning, 15th of February, 1600, in the Field of Flowers (Campo de' Fiori) was burned alive the infamous Dominican friar of Nola [Giordano Bruno], on whom the sentence was passed of *heretico obstinatissimo*. He said that he died as a martyr and willingly, and that his soul would ascend to Paradise purified by those flames. By this time he will have found out how much truth there is in his vaunt." In the same diary on the 17th of February is added: "To the judges who read his sentence, Bruno, who really was a beautiful youth, in the act of ascending the funeral pyre, said: 'You are filled with far greater fear in reading the sentence than I am in listening to it.'" Last year, in homage to the prevailing monument epidemic, a committee of the University of Rome presented a petition to the Municipal Council of the capital of Italy to permit "the erection of a monument to the pantheistic philosopher in the centre of the Field of Flowers, on the spot where his lofty and audacious idea was sealed with heroic death. This spot historical justice has chosen to erect a monument to the philosopher and martyr." Ettore Ferrari, the great Italian sculptor whose monuments of Garibaldi arise month by month, in every town and village of Italy, proffered his services, and the petition to the Roman municipality irrespective of party was signed by Crispi, Zanardelli, Nicotera, Cairoli, Baccarini, Parliamentary Liberals; Bovio, Radical; Saffi, Mazzinian; Cavallotti, Radical poet: Cadorna, Silvio Spaventa, Ruggero Bonghi, pillars of the moderate church.

A year passed, and meanwhile the new municipal elections of Rome multiplied the Clerical members. When Crispi entered the Ministry, delegates from the Giordano Bruno Committee waited upon him to know what would be the action of the Government with regard to the monument. His reply was straightforward: "The Government would see with pleasure the erection of the monument to Giordano Bruno, not doubting for a moment that the municipality of Rome would concede the requisite space for its erection in Campo de' Fiori." *Tutt'altro*, the Clerical members of the Roman municipality, being in the majority, protest against space being granted on the said Field of Flowers for the glorification of the heretic philosopher burnt by the order and for the honor and glory of the Church. Significantly enough, Ruggero Bonghi secedes from his colleagues, on the ground that the monument to Giordano Bruno ought not to be used as an incentive to party passion or to political rivalry, and now, so late in the day, objects to its being erected in the Field of Flowers, devoted to the sale of cabbages and turnips. His letter finishes with very touching reflections on the head of the Church and most cordial sympathy with Duke Torlonia, Syndic of Rome. The wish to avoid offering an affront to Leo XIII. is the chief reason alleged for his advice that the question of the monument be dropped. This is impossible: the Syndic of Rome must propose the cession of the site to the giunta or members of the executive, and the greater the opposition offered the more numerous will be the subscriptions poured in. But certain it is, if the Clericals really outnumber the Liberals, the site for the monument of Giordano Bruno will not be granted in the Field of Flowers.

This otherwise insignificant incident proves that Catholics in Italy, by the simple exercise of their rights as citizens, *i. e.*, by presenting themselves as electors and candidates at the municipal elections, may carry a point in favor of the Vatican against the very strong Liberal party in Rome itself. Hence it is clear that whatever laws they may wish enacted or revoked, they have but to enter the lists as electors and candidates at political elections, and their success will be in proportion to their numbers. Of course the question of the temporal power can never again be discussed, but on most other questions the Clericals would find on entering Parliament that they and the Moderates are very much of the same opinion. The Conservatives, for instance, were strongly opposed to compulsory conscription for seminarists; many of them would gladly see religious education substituted for the "rights and duties of citizens" now taught in the schools, and are opposed to the law on divorce, to the abolition of capital punishment. Hence it is clear what an immense gain it would be to the Vatican should Catholics present themselves as candidates at the next general political elections.

What prevents them from so doing? What hinders them from entering the lists openly as candidates? We say *openly* because most of them vote as electors under the rose. Simply this, in 1874, just three years after the Italian Government had taken possession of Rome, reasonable Catholics—foreseeing that the programme, "Neither electors nor deputies," meant for them practical abdication, realizing that the Chamber of Deputies and even the Senate, composed exclusively of members opposed to the restoration of the temporal power, would bring forward bills and enact laws more and more hostile to the Church—tried to obtain from Pio Nono if not a permission a sort of truce, and received in exchange a sort of anathema, followed by severer denunciations and an explicit veto; and now, until Leo XIII. revokes Pio Nono's prohibition, no Italian who cares to retain his position as one of the faithful can proffer himself as a candidate for a seat in the Italian Parliament. Clearly it is in the interest of the Italian Government that the repeal of this prohibition be retarded as long as possible. None better than Crispi know that he is only tolerated by the old Conservative party—that if only the Catholics be allowed to take the oath to the inseparable welfare of King and country, an offensive and defensive alliance will be at once concluded. Give Crispi time to rally and organize the Liberal ranks now scattered, undisciplined, and, worse than all, indifferent, and Liberal Italy may hold her own; but the success of the Clericals as municipal administrators in Rome, in Naples, in Venice, in larger and smaller cities, is but a foretoken of what will come to pass should they, allied with the Conservatives, present themselves at the political urns.

Their desire to do so will not be diminished by Crispi's speech yesterday, in which he made it very clear that no concessions will be made beyond such as the law consecrates, and also that his Ministry is not to be a hodge-podge of Moderates and Liberals, of men of progress with Conservatives and reactionaries.

"You know what my past has been," he said. "I have nothing to forget, nothing to change; nay, I cherish the sweet illusion that it was in virtue of my past that our loyal King accorded me his confidence. Assuredly, none of you will expect to see me fail in the duty of consistency. Liberty means for us the respect of individual rights harmonized with national right, devotion to the law which, in its turn, is devoted to reason. This guides our conduct towards the people, nor could we adopt another system towards the Church, whose liberty is larger and more secure in Italy than in any other country. This liberty we do not mean to limit; but in respecting it we intend to be respected. This is well known. No one has ever thought of urging such a line of conduct upon us by violence, or even by moral pressure. We have been called *authoritarians*, and we don't deny the charge, if it is meant to indicate our firm persuasion that some sort of authority ought to preside over the fundamental essence and the daily development of the State; but that authority must be legal in all its aspects, founded on the sincere suffrage of the majority, supported by a frank explanation of their desires, by the partition among all of the utmost possible good. Duty, authority, and knowledge must be combined in a government; all else is mere arbitrary rule."

Without entering into the laws that will be proposed to the new Parliament, he let it be understood that reforms will be gradually introduced. A rapid glance at the morning papers shows that the speech on the whole has produced general satisfaction save among the ultra-Radicals, whose representatives formally abstained from the banquet, chiefly on account of the despatch of fresh troops to Africa. The heartiest applause was bestowed on the praises dealt out to the populations of southern Italy during the cholera, and for "the proper and dignified conduct of the entire Italian people, despite the terms not always measured, the acts not always Christian, of the Vatican and the Vaticanists."

J. W. M.

A SÉANCE OF INOCULATION.

PARIS, October 29, 1887.

BEHIND the Latin Quarter, after passing through faded streets, at No. 14 rue Vauquelin, one reads over a modest entrance, not unlike the door of a deserted convent in the provinces, "Institut Pasteur." Within is the same melancholy atmosphere of the convent yard before you enter a vast hall in which are gathered the children of various nations, reminding one of the variegated crowd to be seen at Castle Garden after the arrival of an emigrant ship. The group is impatient, moving restlessly to and fro, and changing expressions like a phantasmagoria. Smoking is prohibited in four languages, and a notice warns the patients that the Institute authorizes no hotel-keeper to assume any responsibility during their treatment. In that solemn enclosure a material link with the outside world is a glass case in which letters bearing foreign postmarks await their destination. I noticed some American stamps among them.

A little recess at the end of the hall is occupied by two men guarding a register. When I mentioned an invitation from M. Pasteur, one of them silently opened the wooden gate for me to pass, then ushered me into another hall where things wore a still more solemn aspect. There I was left in company with the preparations for the séance. These were simple enough. On a

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table a small spirit lamp burned fiercely over eleven little glasses duly labelled and covered with paper. These eleven glasses contained the eleven series of virus, graded according to the cases, and ready for the silver needles of the operator. On a second table two small china vessels were filled with a solution of phenic acid; silver pincers were at hand to apply the thoroughly saturated cotton wad.

It was eleven o'clock in the morning, and we were waiting for some one. I could see M. Pasteur coming from time to time to glance at the clock. His thoughtful, almost somnambulic expression, which doubtless comes from his long tête-à-tête with one of nature's secrets, seemed lighted with impatient expectancy. He looks well, however. Evidently his long summer rest has done him good, and, at the risk of appearing flippant, I should say that he looks quite the modern savant, with his coiffure of gray cloth trimmed with black braid instead of the black velvet cap dear to investigators. But, to illustrate the proverb that punctuality is the politeness of kings, many minutes had not elapsed after eleven o'clock struck when the expected guest, Dom Pedro d'Alcantara, Emperor of Brazil, was announced. The old gentleman entered, followed by two *confidents*, as his companions would have been styled in the old time. I thought as he lifted his tall hat, if the silken fillet of the *pater conscriptus* of ancient Rome encircled his patriarchal brow, how thoroughly he would represent the beau ideal of kind majesty and manly dignity.

The signal was given. Like a bishop emerging from the vestry, surrounded by his clergy, the great savant reappeared, followed by two doctors and two assistants. The first name was called: a swarthy navvy responded; one of the assistants pushed the needle of the syringe through the paper cover on the first glass and filled it, while one of the doctors took a pair of the silver pincers holding a wad of cotton steeped in phenic acid, and gently rubbed the side of the patient before the needle was applied. The face of the man contracted, his dark, burning eyes glowed, and his hot blood, stirred with emotion, gave to his skin the fantastic hues of some rare copper cauldron. A visitor who should have entered at this moment could easily have evoked a vision of the rabies without too heavily taxing his imagination. Not so with the next patient, a buxom, blushing girl from the country, who, without coyness and with admirable tact, slightly opened her simple sacque, and exposed a cut through all her garments prepared for the operation. As her face could not blush a tint deeper, no apprehension was indicated, and with a polite "Thank you" after the inoculation she moved away.

The patients passed in turn—some cold and stoical, some flustered, some attitudinizing—among them a soldier in uniform, who, no doubt, animated by the souvenir of the French warrior who smoked his pipe while his leg was amputated, smiled blandly. The distinguished visitor looked on with great interest. What shrieks, what contortions, as a child was brought. The fatherly old sovereign softened his accents and offered a few consoling words to quiet it, while his grave eye, that had witnessed the making of a whole country, grew tender at the sight of childish fear. Next a youth came forward who kept his gaze fixed steadily on Dom Pedro. Instead of retiring like the rest after the inoculation, he remained standing, when M. Pasteur presented him to the Emperor, saying that he had arrived from Brazil the day before to be treated. "What is your name?" asked the fatherly voice. The boy repeated his name twice, still looking in the face of his sovereign with the expression peculiar to one who meets a countryman in a foreign land. "Tell me," resumed the Emperor, still softening his tone, "thou dost not feel at all queer?" The youth shook his head (apparently he had not been trained to any court ceremonial). "Good! Was it a small dog or a big one that bit thee?" "A Newfoundland." "Ah, nothing to fear!" said the Emperor. "I was knocked over by a Newfoundland once, from whom I had taken his soup. He did not bite me, however, but I bear the scar of his scratch on my finger. Look!" And Dom Pedro ungloved his right hand, and held the finger for the boy to see.

During this exchange of experiences between liege and subject, the séance progressed, and Dom Pedro's attention was next arrested by the entrance of a palish young woman with a plaster on her cheek. "Ah!" he remarked, "bitten on the face; that is graver." A young man standing near me, overhearing this remark, said confidentially that he had been bitten on the leg, and that the cloth of his pantaloons had no doubt absorbed the greater part of the venom. "I don't believe mine is a serious case; however, I left Brussels at once to come here," he added. This remark reveals the benefit of inoculation to mankind, even admitting hydrophobia to be merely an imaginary disease pushed to fatality by nervous excitement, as the regular practitioners contend. If this simple operation has the power to calm fears in the face of which the bravest are cowards and the stanchest hearts fail, has not M. Pasteur done more than offered a cup of cold water to a thirsty traveller? The last of the forty patients to be treated was a small boy bearing the *berret* of the Pyrenees. He had come alone from his serene mountains in search of that panacea without which his native skies would never seem cloudless again.

M. Pasteur next introduced his illustrious colleague of the Académie des Sciences to that ghastly factory of virus—that conservatory of microbes—if I may call it by that name. *Multum in parvo* might be the motto of that darkened room, where millions and millions of microbes, enclosed in their glass prisons, thrive and multiply. On a long table are rows of air-tight flasks, each containing a small piece of the pulp or spinal or cerebral marrow of a rabbit dead of hydrophobia. These flasks have been previously heated to the requisite temperature to render them inaccessible to foreign deposits, the necessity of which M. Pasteur emphasized by reminding Dom Pedro that even cutaneous injections of morphine cause slight irritations of the skin—in other words, local poisoning—brought on by the introduction of foreign matter infected with the morphine. When these pulps infected with virus are thoroughly dried, they are pulverized and classed according to the degree of their intensity. It is well known that one of M. Pasteur's most precious discoveries is that the oxygen of the air is an agent for attenuating the strength of the virus. Thus the vaccine can be modified and its virulence graded by greater or less contact with oxygen. The vaccine is applied to the patient according to the gravity of the case and the progress of the treatment. It is in *bouillons*—the essence of purified chicken soup—that the powder of microbes is cultivated; they form the stock of vaccine matter.

From the time M. Pasteur thought of communicating hydrophobia by a direct application of rabid matter placed on the surface of the brain, a great step was made towards a practical method of cultivating the germ. Before that the method of inoculation was very slow; months often elapsed before the experimenter could see the result of an experiment. When M. Pasteur, instead of deriving the rabid virus from the saliva of mad dogs, took it from the cerebral substance of a mad animal, he obtained a pure virus, which developed madness in exactly the same length of time that follows a bite. And when the virus was placed under the cerebral cap on the surface of the brain, results proved that hydrophobia is essentially an illness of the encephalon: not only the brain, but the spine and the whole set of nerves, even the marrow of the animal, are infected.

The theory of hydrophobia transmitted through the bite of a mad dog and by trepanning is very clear. The bite of the dog inoculates the virus through the blood, which puts it in communication with the surface of the brain and the marrow, and penetrates the nervous mass. By trepanning, the marrow is first attacked, and death results from paralysis. The contortions and spasms present when the nervous system is a prey to rabid poison are absent; the animal is neither furious nor excited, but calm to the end. Paralysis wraps his senses in its lethean embrace.

The next thing was to visit the rabbits. These are kept in a thoroughly ventilated rotunda, where each little animal occupies a separate cage and nibbles the fragrant herbs scattered round him until paralysis ends its existence. The effect of the poison is at once discernible in their actions. Those recently inoculated—those bearing a fresh wound on the head—are the most lively, while those with the wound almost healed are nearing the end. "This one will be dead to-morrow," said M. Pasteur, glancing at the label on the cage, "and is, besides, the sixty-fourth subject of a line of mad rabbits, having received on his brain the virus that had been transmitted through sixty-three before him."

It cannot be denied that these rabbits are more convenient to handle than mad dogs. They must be agreeable substitutes for the weird pack that howled in the basement laboratory of the Rue d'Ulm. I recall an episode in the life of the great savant during that period of unceasing experiments. A veterinary surgeon despatched a message saying he had a bulldog furiously mad that he would place at M. Pasteur's disposal. M. Pasteur started with a basketful of rabbits, expecting to have them bitten by the dog, but it was in vain that the long ears of the rabbit were pushed through the bars of the cage where the dog was confined; he shrunk back to the furthest corner and refused to hurt them. Not discouraged, M. Pasteur ordered the surgeon's aids to hold the dog on a table while he applied a glass tube to the foaming mouth, and with his own lips drew a few drops of the fatal saliva with which he inoculated the rabbits. An eye witness of this perilous deed told me that M. Pasteur never seemed so great as at that moment.

The sight of the rabbits naturally suggested the subject of trepanning. M. Pasteur proposed to illustrate its simplicity, much to the gratification of Dom Pedro, whose interest in all matters pertaining to science knows no weariness. We followed the savant to one of the rooms in the Institute, where a frisky rabbit was brought and laid on a table, and a tiny paper funnel placed over his nose. Very soon the chloroform had converted his sprightliness into the limpest drowsiness. It was a moment of great interest. The Emperor drew nearer as one of the assistants, with a sleight of hand as clever as magic, cut the skin over the cranium, and, with the trepan, took out a piece of the skull as large as the eye of a shoe button, deposited on the surface of the untouched brain an atom of the virus, replaced the skin, and sewed up the wound. Pretty soon the rabbit was as sprightly as before, and was

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taken to a cage in the rotunda, with his days numbered. This was the beginning of the end; in twenty days he would be dead.

As we passed out through the dreary courtyard where the autumn wind scattered the rain and dead leaves, we met a curious-looking old couple under the guidance of a pilot in search of M. Pasteur's remedy. The short, full skirt and the gaudy fichu of the old woman, the fustian jacket and broad-brimmed hat of her companion, told of a distant province; but neither of the faces told which was the unfortunate one. A look of equal anxiety met the questioner's gaze. They needed help—that help which the strongest believers in destiny do not hesitate to ask of science to rescue them from the penalty of sin.

LE COCQ DE LAUTREPPE.

FURTHER PETRARCH DISCOVERIES.

FLORENCE, October 18, 1887.

SEVERAL months back (No. 1103) the *Nation* gave an account of the rediscovery, in the library of the Vatican, of autographic codices of three of Petrarch's works—the fact of their existence having passed out of the knowledge both of the custodians of the library and of the general world of letters. The hope was then expressed that the identification of such a body of Petrarch's handwriting would soon lead to the recovery of other documents throwing light upon the literary productions, or the life, of the great poet and humanist. This hope has since been amply gratified. M. Pierre de Nolhac, the able French palæographer to whom scholars are so greatly indebted for the discoveries previously made in the Vatican, delayed his projected work on the library of the sixteenth century book-collector, Fulvio Orsini, in order to hunt through the manuscripts of the Paris National Library for volumes either transcribed by Petrarch or, at least, once in his possession. Of these latter some seventeen had already been pointed out by Joseph Van Praët (1813), in a virtually inedited list of the vellum codices of Paris, and by M. Léopold Delisle in his interesting 'Cabinet des Manuscrits' (1868); but neither had subjected to the rigid examination they deserved these relics of Petrarch's library—which had originally come to France, on the capture of Pavia by Louis XII. in 1499, as a portion of the splendid collection founded by the ducal family of the Visconti in that city, and deposited in the very palace in which Petrarch once resided as the guest of Galeazzo Visconti.

Four of these remarkable vellum manuscripts have been selected by M. de Nolhac for description in an article entitled "Facsimilés de l'écriture de Pétrarque et appendices au 'Canzoniere autographe,'" published in the *Mélanges d'Archéologie et d'Histoire* (tome vii) of the French School at Rome. Besides many marginal notes of interest in the handwriting of Petrarch, all the four have, in accordance with his custom, a sort of *ex-libris*, in which he gives the dates of their acquisition. The first (Par. lat. 1994) is a commentary on Psalms ci–cl by St. Augustine (who, of all the Fathers of the Church, was the object of Petrarch's special veneration), on the final leaf of which the owner has written: *Emptus Rome 1337, 16 martij;* while on the recto of the first folio is a long note in his hand, dated five days later. The second (7595) includes the works of that encyclopædic compiler, Isidore of Seville, in which the Petrarchan *ex-libris* records its purchase for him at Paris by his father, its loss by theft, and its subsequent recovery: *Emptus mihi a patre Parisius* [=*Parisiis*], *tempore pueritie me*[*e*], *post furto perditus et recuperatus. 1347°.* The third codex, in two enormous tomes of the thirteenth century, is a complete copy of St. Augustine's commentary on the Psalter, and was presented to Petrarch by Boccaccio, whom he thanks for the acceptable gift in a letter still extant ('Fam.,' xyiii, 3), the hitherto unknown date of which is now fixed by this autographic inscription: *Hoc immensum opus donauit mihi uir egregius dominus Iohannes Boccacii de Certaldo poeta nostri temporis, quod de Florentia Mediolanum ad me peruenit. 1355, aprilis 10.* At the end of this manuscript M. de Nolhac found the *ex-libris* of Boccaccio, which he had evidently erased before sending the book to his friend at Milan. The action of chemical reagents brought out some fragmentary portions of this autograph of the author of the Decameron: *Iste liber est mey Giouanni* [*B*]*ocha*[*c*]*he . . .* [*ten*]*ebat a fratre Iacopo de cha . . . e sene . . . pro eo.*

The fourth described codex is a Latin version of Homer, made, through the efforts of Petrarch and Boccaccio, by the Calabrian teacher of Greek, Leo (or Leontius) Pilatus—a copy executed under Petrarch's supervision from Leo's original. The *ex-libris* thus tells its story: *Domi scriptus, Pataui ceptus, Ticini perfectus, Mediolani illuminatus et ligatus anno 1369°.* This record presents a fair instance, not only of the continuity and steadiness with which Petrarch carried on his bookish labors, but of his methodical ways in general—one of the multitudinous phases of his character which, combined, make him what Ludwig Geiger calls him, the first modern man. He received Leo's translation in 1364 or 1365, and had the copy made in his own house, beginning it at Padua, completing it at Pavia (Ticinum), and having it illuminated and bound at Milan in 1369—successive changes of residence confirmed by consulting Fracassetti's chronology of the poet's movements for the years 1365–69. This was the first complete version of the Homeric epics ever made.

Of the remaining volumes in the French National Library, once on Petrarch's shelves, M. de Nolhac will give full details in his forthcoming work, 'La Bibliothèque de Fulvio Orsini'; indeed, he half leads us to hope that he will devote himself later to the task of reconstructing the catalogue of the poet's library, which was pretty certainly without a rival in its day, for he was the earliest book-collector of the Renaissance, preceding by several decades Nicholas V., Cardinal Bessarion, and Cosmo the Great. Meanwhile the indefatigable palæographer will publish, immediately after his 'Fulvio Orsini,' another work, already in the press, 'Les Scholies inédites de Pétrarque sur Homère'—these scholia probably drawn, in large part, from Petrarch's own copy of the version of Leo Pilatus.

But the inestimable feature of M. de Nolhac's essay—of which some copies have been separately issued—is the heliotype facsimiles of Petrarch autographs which accompany it. The first is a page from Petrarch's finally revised copy of the 'Canzoniere' (Vat. 3195); this is in the hand of the author, but is followed by a page in the handwriting of the scribe who executed a comparatively small portion of the codex under the poet's eye; then succeed two pages from the autographic manuscript of Petrarch's 'Bucolicum Carmen' (Vat. 3358); and a final sheet giving the long annotation on the opening folio of the first of the four described Paris codices, and the *ex-libris* from the other three—each one written, it will be remembered, at a different period of Petrarch's life, namely, in 1337, 1347, 1355, and 1369—the whole thus forming an invaluable aid to the discovery of the still unrecognized literary treasures of Petrarch likely to exist in the European libraries.

M. de Nolhac, resuming subsequently his labors on Fulvio Orsini, encountered a tradition—or, rather, a positive statement, repeated successively by Baldelli, Fracassetti, Dell' Acqua, and others—that the superb Virgil codex in the Ambrosian Library at Milan, formerly belonging to Petrarch, and containing the famous note on Laura, had once formed a part of the Orsini collection. In his endeavor to set this question at rest he ran across some letters of the seventeenth century, written not long after the acquisition of the precious relic by Cardinal Borromeo, the founder of the Ambrosian collection. These conclusively proved that the Virgil was bought before April 15, 1600 (a few weeks previous to Orsini's death), at the sale of the library of the Abate Maffa, and also added the assertion that it had once been in the possession of Cardinal Cusanus. But one of the private letters examined (written by G. M. Grazi to the noted Padovan bibliophile, G. V. Pinelli) stated that the notes in the Virgil were certainly by Petrarch, since the handwriting was of precisely the same character as that in an Apuleius in the Vatican. This was too significant a hint to be neglected by so acute an investigator as M. de Nolhac. Being in Paris, he called to his aid a brother palæographer attached to the École Française at Rome, who, with M. de Nolhac's facsimiles in his hand, carefully scrutinized all the manuscripts of Apuleius in the vast Vatican treasure-house. He was fortunate enough to find the object of his search in the vellum codex No. 2193, comprising various treatises by Apuleius (at the beginning of the volume), Cicero, Frontinus, and especially the work 'De re rustica' by the Roman agronome, Palladius. There were a few marginal notes in the poet's hand, but, what was of vastly more importance, the final folio was filled with a great mass of observations drawn from his experiences in gardening, set down between the years 1348 and 1369, all of them hitherto unknown. These M. de Nolhac now edits in an article, "Pétrarque et son Jardin, d'après ses notes inédites," in the last issue (fasc. 27) of the Turin *Giornale storico della letteratura italiana.*

They are written, of course, in Latin, and not only prove over again Petrarch's ardent love of nature, but exhibit the many-sided man in the new phase of a scientific investigator. We see him first as a viticulturist at Parma, where he has divided his garden into two parts, one for plants requiring more careful tillage. Here on November 26, 1348, he takes some cuttings from his vines, sets out part of them in the usual way, but plants the remainder very deep in the soil, burying them, as he says, so that only a "modicum" of each is left above ground. This, he states, is totally contrary to the custom of the country, but in accordance with the advice given him by a Cremonese horticulturist. In his experiments he notes the day and hour, the state of the wind and the atmosphere, the phase of the moon, the character of the season, with all the exactness of a modern investigator, and in a subsequent paragraph the ultimate result, which, in the case of the deeply planted vines, he sets down as better than he expected (*melius quam putaram*). It gives one a novel idea of the fourteenth century to mark how like the observations of an experimental gardener of to-day are these terse records of the final results: "Succeeded admirably," "not the least effect," "still living and flourishing finely" (*Viuit et uiret optime*), "good, especially in the case of the willows," etc. He goes on, trying various soils for his apple trees and peaches and plums,

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testing culture in the open and against walls, devoting thought to his trenches, substituting lawns in certain spots for plantations of trees, grafting his vines with scions of rare sorts from beyond the sea (*uites transmarinas*), possibly from Greece or Sicily, and procuring seeds and plants from various friends in other regions. He displays a familiar knowledge of many herbs and vegetables—rosemary, hyssop, beets, parsley, spinach, fennel—and studies the varieties of the olive (of which he gets a better sort from Bergamo), the willow, and the laurel—to which last, as the tree sacred to poets, he devotes much time and care. At Milan, with no garden of his own, he labors in those of various convents—St. Valeria at one time, and then St. Ambrose, which latter lay close to his house.

It was in the garden of St. Valeria that an incident occurred, here carefully narrated, which determines the date of one of Boccaccio's visits to him, and shows us two of the great figures of the Renaissance side by side. Petrarch had received, he tells us, five specimens of laurel, two of a delicate character and three of a hardier variety (*due tenere, tres duriores*) from his friend Thaddeus (*lauros Cumo*—which M. de Nolhac takes to be Como—*transmissas per Tadeum nostrum*), and on Saturday, March 16, 1359, he proceeds to plant them. After a preliminary note about the weather and condition of the soil, he says: *Inter cetera multum prodesse deberet ad profectum sacrarum arbuscularum, quod insignis vir d.*[=*dominus*] *Io. Boccacii de Certaldo, ipsis amicissimus et mihi, casu in has horas tunc aduectus, sationi interfuit.* Perhaps no prettier compliment was ever paid by one famous poet to another; certainly no happier conceit was ever recorded in the note-book of a gardener. But Petrarch, even in the memorable presence of such a friend, doesn't lose his horticultural interest; and immediately sets down his comments on the state of the roots of the laurels and the lingering coldness of the season. A month later he notes the condition of the shrubs: *Iam nunc circa medium aprilem due maiores crescunt; alie uero non letos successus spondent. Credo firmiter terram hanc huic arbori inimicam.*

In 1369 Petrarch maintained gardens both in Padua and Arquà, and records some experiences connected with both. One spring day in that year Lombardo da Serico, the companion of his old age, the executor named in his will, and the continuator of his unfinished 'Epitome vitarum virorum illustrium,' brings him "two huge laurels with immense roots;" and out of respect, doubtless, to their extraordinary size, the two friends plant the sacred shrubs with much ceremony (*solemnissime*). The concluding note refers to some fruit trees and a solitary laurel, sent as a gift to Petrarch. Receiving them in Padua, Lombardo hastens to gratify his distinguished friend by conveying them to him at Arquà, but in going by water across the plain to the base of the Euganean Hills, he is detained by contrary winds, and the plants doubtless suffer in the December cold. (Petrarch does not say, as M. de Nolhac incautiously quotes in his French summary, that "Lombardo va da Padoue à Arquà en bateau," since that feat would have been as difficult of performance in the fourteenth century as now, considering that Arquà, though so near to Padua, lies not much less than a thousand feet above it.) No proper precaution is neglected in the planting of the fruit trees, and the final note closes, appositely enough: *Ego nescio quid sperem; operiemus finem.*

M. de Nolhac, by these "finds," both those of Paris and those of Rome, establishes, as has already been hinted, many new and important dates for the benefit of Petrarch's future biographers; but his services in exhuming the pleasant records of Petrarch's constant devotion to his garden, and of his eager desire to test the varying influences of nature, are of even a higher value.

Now that the autographic codex (Vat. 3195), containing Petrarch's final copy of his Italian lyrics, has been reidentified, new data in regard to the past history of this remarkable literary monument are rapidly accumulating. An unnoticed passage in Vellutello's preface to his long commentary on the 'Rime' makes it more than probable that the Padovan owner from whom Cardinal Bembo borrowed the codex in 1501, in order to use it as the text of the first Aldine edition, was one Messer Daniello di Santa Sofia, who was still living in 1525, but of whom nothing further is yet known. If there were any doubt about the subsequent ownership of the manuscript by Bembo himself, it would be dissipated by a statement of G. V. Pinelli, unearthed by Professor Pio Rajna—author of that sterling work, 'Le Origini dell' Epopea francese'—among the manuscript collections of the Ambrosian library. Pinelli, in one of his bibliographical note-books, puts down a list of various interesting objects which he saw during a visit to the Cardinal's library (*studio*) at Padova, made some time before 1581. Among these he cites: "Versi volgari del Petrarca di mano dell'autore in bella lettera in perg."—which can be none other than the autograph codex. In the same place Pinelli also finds the detached paper folios containing the rough drafts, with corrections, of several of the lyrics (Vat. 3196), which, as will be remembered, likewise passed from Bembo's collection into that of Fulvio Orsini. He thus describes them: "Alcuni fogli di rime del Petrarca corrette e mutate da lui med°. le quali cita il bembo nelle sue prose," to which he adds in parenthesis: "furono ritrovate in mano d'un pizzicarolo"—but whether it was Bembo himself or some one else who rescued them from the hands of the groceryman (*pizzicarolo*), Pinelli does not say.

Another Petrarchan discovery, of quite a different character, has been lately communicated to the public by Dr. Johannes Uebinger of Münster, a scholar long engaged on a new edition of the works of Cusanus (Nicholas of Cusa)—that prelate who, long before the days of Luther, believed in the necessity of a Reformation, and, long before the days of Copernicus and Galileo, believed in the theory of the earth's motion, and the very cardinal who, as has been seen, is supposed to have been, at an early period, the possessor of Petrarch's Virgil. Dr. Uebinger's essay, "Die angeblichen Dialoge Petrarcas über die wahre Weisheit," is printed in Geiger's *Vierteljahrsschrift für die Kultur und Litteratur der Renaissance* (vol. ii., No. 1), and relates to the dialogues 'De vera sapientia,' so long ascribed to Petrarch. This tractate has always occupied an anomalous position; it is nowhere alluded to in Petrarch's letters, as are all his other works, and is mentioned by none of his contemporaries; nor is there any manuscript of it in existence as old even as the earlier part of the fifteenth century; yet it has been included in all the five editions of the collected writings from 1496 to 1581. Buhle, the historian of modern philosophy, was the earliest to notice its resemblance to some dialogues by Cusanus bearing nearly the same title; but he took it for granted that Cusanus had copied from Petrarch. Körting, Petrarch's ablest biographer, indicated clearly (1878) that a portion of the work was identical with certain passages in Petrarch's 'De remediis utriusque fortunæ'—and Petrarch was hardly the man to repeat himself. Dr. Uebinger now demonstrates that the bulk of the book (nearly one-half of the first dialogue and all of the second) is, with various alterations and corruptions, from the treatise 'De sapientia' of Cusanus, in which has been interpolated (in the middle of dialogue i.) excerpts from Petrarch's 'De remediis,' followed by an extract from some still unrecognized author; and infers that the work, in its existing state, is a compilation by some scribe of the fifteenth century. But, strangely enough, the treatise of Cusanus (written in 1450) was not published until 1478, while the earliest edition of the 'De vera sapientia,' under Petrarch's name, was printed at Utrecht some five years before, or less than a decade after the death of Cusanus (1464). There are thus some doubtful points still to be cleared up, but it seems fair to conclude, with Dr. Uebinger, that the 'De vera sapientia' must be erased from the list of Petrarch's productions.

Correspondence.

AMERICAN ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: My attention has been called to your recent article on "State Interference with Railways," in which you take the opportunity to criticise the American Economic Association, and to place its members in a false position. As Secretary of the Association it seems proper for me to tell your readers that this society embraces men of the most diverse opinions, some of whom go as far as you in the direction of *laissez-faire*. When you comment upon the American Economic Association, you are simply speaking of the economists of the country, for I know of no economic tendency which is not represented in its membership. In fact, it includes at the present time the majority of economists of prominence in this country, and a considerable proportion of the better-known economists of England. Our last monograph is by a lecturer in Lincoln and Corpus Christi Colleges, Oxford. The governing body of the Association is the Council, and if you will look in our annual report when it appears, you will find in it more than one name of those whom you delight to honor in your editorial columns; no one of them has, however, so far as I know, observed this "serious danger" to which we seem exposed.

While there is a wide difference of opinion among us, and while I have no authority to speak for others, to prevent misunderstanding I think I ought to say that I know of no one who interprets the declaration in regard to the State as an agency of progress to mean that "in doubtful cases the presumption is in favor of State action." One of our monographs, indeed, takes strong ground against any such doctrine.

In conclusion, allow me to call your attention to another declaration in our constitution. The object of the Association is "the encouragement of perfect freedom in all economic discussion."

As much as we differ in other points, I think we all agree in this.

Richard T. Ely.

Johns Hopkins University,
Baltimore, Md., November 9, 1887.

WATERWAYS VS. RAILWAYS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your editorial, "State Interference with Railways," of November 3 (No. 1166), speaking of water-routes competing with railways, you take a position which will be disputed by no one who is familiar with the subject. The advocates of projected canals admit, without evasion, that canals in most cases do

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not, or would not, if constructed, yield interest on the investment. They claim that water-routes serve in bringing down freight charges over a wide territory, and save the shipper as well as the consumer vast sums of money through competition. This view is advocated largely in Western newspapers, and its most conspicuous exponent was the late Gov. Horatio Seymour. In numerous papers and addresses he endeavored to prove that the visible effects of artificial waterways, *i. e.*, freight actually moved and the financial statements of its operations, are insignificant compared with the pressure it exerts on competing railways. If this view is correct, your argument is incomplete unless it disposes of this phase of the question. GUSTAV WIEMER.

CARROLLTON, ILL., November 7, 1887.

[If the United States Government should choose to build a railroad from Chicago to New York, and habitually run it at a heavy loss, it might thereby reduce charges much below their present figure. But a permanently bankrupt-road of this kind would not be a useful thing for the country. It would give an artificial stimulus to trade at some points, and check the natural growth of railroad enterprise at others. If a community, however large, asked the Government to build such a railroad, not because they could pay for it, but because it was going to reduce the profits of somebody else whom they did not like, it would be class legislation of the worst sort. And when the Government is asked to spend money for unprofitable waterways because railroad profits will thereby be reduced, it is a case of the same kind.

If the community can make a canal pay, it is evidence that they need it. If they cannot make it pay, it is at least strong *prima facie* evidence that they do not need it. If they claim that it will pay indirectly, by reducing railroad profits, they overlook the fact that such reduction will prevent railroad facilities from being extended as fast as they otherwise would be. If the Government gives A a canal which he cannot pay for, it deprives B of railroad facilities for which he could pay his share. If it were a case of subsidizing one railroad route against another, people would see the fallacy. There is a glamour of apparent free competition about a waterway which blinds them to the facts in the case. But the number of people who can make direct use of an internal waterway is not large; and the history of certain rings at Buffalo and Cincinnati shows how water traffic may be practically monopolized in a few hands.—ED. NATION.]

THE RAINFALL AT LOS ANGELES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In a very interesting letter to the *Nation*, from Henry T. Finck, which shows him to be a very accurate observer, and which, as a whole, gives a very true picture of us as we appear when seen with loving eyes, the following statement is made:

"The general irrigation now resorted to, and the numerous green oases which have in consequence sprung up amid the deserts of prickly cactus, have already exerted some influence on the climate, and there is reason to believe that rain will be more abundant in the future than in the past."

One frequently hears this opinion expressed, not only by the oldest native, but also by the latest "tenderfoot." As accurately observed facts do not seem to justify the theory, I trust you will print the enclosed table, which is taken from the "Annual Meteorological Review" collected and compiled by Sergeant James A. Barwick of the Signal Corps, United States Army, in Sacramento, Cal. Since our rain comes at any time from the first of November to April inclusive, and not during the summer months, the best way is to judge by the rainfall during the "rainy" season, and not by the year. Both are given, however, as they show some interesting variations when taken together in the time of the rainfall. Thus, in 1884, there was 40.39 inches of rainfall, but in the season of 1884 and 1885 only 9.29 inches.

LOS ANGELES, L. A. CO., CAL.

Year.	Rainfall in inches.	Season of	Rainfall in inches.
1873.....	16.86	1873-4	24.78
1874.....	21.20	1874-5	21.68
1875.....	26.10	1875-6	26.74
1876.....	18.75	1876-7	5.28
1877.....	10.12	1877-8	21.26
1878.....	20.86	1878-9	11.35
1879.....	17.41	1879-80	20.34
1880.....	18.65	1880-1	13.13
1881.....	5.53	1881-2	10.40
1882.....	10.74	1882-3	12.11
1883.....	14.14	1883-4	38.22
1884.....	40.39	1884-5	9.29
1885.....	10.69	1885-6	22.72
1886.....	17.22	1886-7	*14.15

Very truly yours, H. B. WING.

LOS ANGELES, November 4, 1887.

THE PRIVATE BOMB-MAKER.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Cannot some public attention be called to the extreme necessity for making the private manufacture of bombs criminal to such an extent as to merit very severe punishment? Hitherto we have not seen or heard that their possession by any one was treated as a crime. The ease with which they can be manufactured, the secrecy with which they can be successfully carried about and used, and the fact that nobody needs them except for criminal purposes, ought to make their private manufacture and possession at least as criminal as carrying concealed weapons. We think they should be more severely treated. The events which have occurred so recently in connection with the Chicago Anarchists ought to emphasize this. Let the penalty be a severe penitentiary punishment for the manufacture, use, or possession of them in any way not carefully prescribed by law. We see very little legitimate use for dynamite in the private purposes of life, and no reason for tolerating such an abuse of power as it puts into men like the Anarchists. It is too late to wait until they have done something destructive to punish them. As for ourselves, we know of no case in which the mere possession of it is not surrounded with something like criminal intentions. Cannot the public be awakened to some action in this matter?

J. H. HYSLOP.

JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY,
BALTIMORE, MD., November 11, 1887.

THE LEIF ERIKSON MONUMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In reading the Boston *Transcript's* long account of the exercises attending the unveiling of the Leif Erikson monument in Boston on October 29, I was somewhat surprised to find that no mention was made of the origin of the agitation which has just culminated in the completion of the monument. The orator of the occasion, Professor E. N. Horsford, entered into the discussion of details in almost every other branch of his subject, but, strange to say, had only one single sentence that has any reference to the origin of this movement. That sentence is: "This is the statue Ole Bull, earliest of all, conceived and dreamed of, worked and sang for." It seems to me, Mr. Editor, that something more than this barren sentence might very appropriately have been said in this direction.

The idea of erecting a monument in honor of the Norse discoverer was conceived in the State of Wisconsin among a few patriotic Norsemen, with Ole Bull as the central figure. Ole Bull and Professor Rasmus B. Anderson, now United States Minister to Denmark, were very intimate friends. They first met in January, 1868. Professor Anderson was at this time much interested in the study of the Norse discoveries, and had lectured on the subject. Ole Bull was also an enthusiastic vindicator of the claims of the Norsemen, and the first time they were together the subject was discussed by them. In Ole Bull's response to an address of welcome on the occasion of his first visit to this city, January 19, 1868, he spoke of the discovery of America by the Northmen. On May 17, 1872, he gave a concert in this city for the purpose of raising funds for purchasing Scandinavian books for the library of the University of Wisconsin, and after the concert was over a State reception was given in honor of Mr. Bull, presided over by Gov. C. C. Washburn. Various speeches were made on this occasion, and I find in the report of the speech made by Professor Anderson these words: "And right here allow me to say that when you have assisted Norway in erecting a monument on the grave of Harald Haarfager, we earnestly hope that you will return hither and assist us in erecting a monument in honor of Leif Erikson." In his response Ole Bull dwelt on the same theme.

This, so far as I can ascertain, is the first public mention of a monument for Leif Erikson. It had, however, often been talked of before by Ole Bull and Professor Anderson among their friends.

Ole Bull returned to this city in the fall of 1872; and on May 27 succeeding, at a meeting of the Scandinavians of this city, at which he was present, the plans for the erection of a monument were discussed. Ole Bull was soon to depart for Norway, but offered his services in giving, before his departure, a few concerts, for the purpose of starting a fund. The first one was given at Cambridge, Wis., on the evening of May 31, 1873. At this and the other concerts held for the same purpose, Professor Anderson was with Mr. Bull, and spoke in the intervals on the Norse discoveries and of the plans for a Leif Erikson monument. Ole Bull, too, often became so enthusiastic in the cause that he was not content to act as a virtuoso merely, but assumed the rôle of an orator as well. I was present at the first of this series of concerts, and distinctly remember the interest he succeeded in arousing among his countrymen.

Ole Bull was, indeed, full of enthusiasm on this subject. His original plans for the unveiling of the monument were, too, somewhat different from those which have recently been carried out. His were to have been on a much grander scale, and it is interesting to recall them at this time. The following is from Madison daily of May, 1873:

"Ole Bull, Professor R. B. Anderson, Senator J. A. Johnson, and other prominent Norwegians are raising money to build a monument to Leif Erikson. The first-named gentleman has already given some concerts, and will give some more before leaving for Nor-

* Up to May 1, 1887.

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way, the entire proceeds to be devoted to the monument fund. Professor Anderson, a linguist thoroughly versed in Scandinavian literature, is to lecture for the benefit of the fund. The total amount to be raised is $10,000. The monument is to be erected in Madison, and dedicated with great ceremony on the hundredth anniversary of American independence. Ole Bull, Björnson, the famous Norwegian author and poet, and other celebrities will be present on the occasion, together with such a host of enthusiastic Norwegians from this and adjoining States as were never before seen together outside of the borders of Norway."

In June, 1873, Professor Anderson accompanied Ole Bull to Norway, where they agitated the same question. Björnson was summoned from Christiana to Ole Bull's villa near Bergen, where a conference was held to discuss the subject. After his return, Professor Anderson published a small work entitled: 'America Not Discovered by Columbus.' From a note in this work concerning the monument scheme I find the following:

"For the realization of this object Ole Bull has contributed his eminent services. He has already given several concerts, both in this country and in Norway, the proceeds of which go to the monument fund. . . . Norway's famous poet and orator, Björnstjerne Björnson, has promised to write, for the dedication of the monument, a cantata, to which the eminent Norse composer, Edward Grieg, will write the music. Björnson has also promised to come to America in person and deliver the dedication oration."

These were Ole Bull's original plans.

As a result of this initiatory work, about $2,000 were raised, but for various reasons, into the details of which I cannot here enter, the work of raising money progressed very slowly in the West, and hence, in order to gain the coöperation of men of means, a committee, consisting of over fifty prominent Eastern men, was appointed December 8, 1876, on the occasion of a concert given by Ole Bull in Boston, and to this committee the funds raised in the West were ultimately transferred.

Hoping that I have contributed a few facts that may be of interest in the history of this monument, I am,

Yours respectfully, JULIUS E. OLSON.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, MADISON, October 7, 1887.

SOME THINGS ABOUT THE UNITED STATES SUPREME COURT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: At the recent meeting of the bar commemorative of the late Justice Woods of that court, one of the senior lawyers made some statements, concerning the bench itself, which have been brought to mind by your paragraph referring to the vacancy caused by Judge Woods's demise. They may be of some interest:

"Its centennial was near, and it was a curious thing in its history that no associate justice of the court had ever fully become its head. One (John Rutledge) had been nominated for Chief Justice, but failed to pass the Senate. One Chief Justice (R. B. Taney) had been nominated for an associate justice, and also failed in the Senate."

A still more curious thing was the fact that no full Chief Justice had, before his elevation, filled any judicial position whatever.

"It was perhaps a law of the court that no associate should be promoted, and the Chief Justice should never serve any judicial apprenticeship—a thing to be remembered when estimating their success as the head of this court. It was also true, as a rule, that the associate justices were taken untried from the ranks of the bar. And what a comment, that for near a hundred years there had not been a poor lawyer, a weak or a bad man on that bench—never had been! The personnel of the court had always been so high, the court had so well performed its functions, so well borne its dignity and sustained itself, that conscious weakness, infirmity of character, deficiency of learning had never reached the bench—dared not seek it."

This last was eulogium. Taking the matter up at the point that usually all the members of the court have come fresh from the bar, something may be added. Justice Woods himself was taken from the Circuit Court, and he left upon the bench Blatchford from the Federal Court of New York, and Gray from the Supreme Court of Massachusetts.

The whole number of associates, from its first session ninety-seven years ago, is forty-three. Of these but fourteen or fifteen had previously filled judicial positions, and the most of these were in the earlier years of the court. Obviously, whatever may be the fitness of men already invested with judicial functions, that condition renders them inconspicuous—more so than a high position at the bar; while he to whom it falls to place a new incumbent upon the national bench knows many at the bar fit for the place. Possibly the consideration that men in judicial places are provided for, has a small percentage of influence, as has the wish to provide for a deserving Cabinet officer.

It is curious to observe how the high honors of the Supreme Court have been distributed among the States. Six have fallen to New York—a chief and five associates—Jay, Livingston, Thompson, Nelson, Hunt, and Blatchford. Of these the second, third and fourth had served on her bench. The last was taken from the Federal bench.

Massachusetts contributed four — Cushing, Story, Curtis, and Gray. The first and last were her Chief Justices when taken. Was it stepping down or up for these? Story and Curtis were from the bar direct.

Virginia has furnished five—John Marshall and Bushrod Washington from her bar, John Blair, P. P. Barbour, and Peter V. Daniel from her bench.

Pennsylvania has been honored with four places—James Wilson, Henry Baldwin, R. C. Grier, and William Strong. Grier was a State judge; Baldwin, Strong, and Wilson were not.

From Maryland came Taney, R. H. Harrison, Thomas Johnson, Samuel Chase, and Gabriel Duval. Chase, when transferred to the Federal Court, was Chief Justice, and Duval went from the Maryland bench.

North Carolina furnished Iredell from her bench and Alfred Moore from her bar.

John Rutledge, as everybody knows, was a South Carolinian, first appointed an associate justice, nominated Chief Justice, presided in a single short term as Chief Justice, was rejected by the Senate, and retired. This in 1795. He was born in 1739, and died in 1800. William Johnson was also from South Carolina. Neither Rutledge nor Johnson had previously been a judge.

New Jersey contributed William Paterson and the present Justice Bradley, both from the bar direct.

Connecticut has had the single honor of furnishing the third Chief Justice, Ellsworth.

Kentucky has received three of the high places—Thomas Todd, Robert Trimble, and our present Justice Harlan. They were all Kentucky lawyers.

Ohio has been conspicuously remembered. President Jackson took John McLean from her Supreme Court. Chief-Justices Chase and Waite, Justices Swayne and Matthews, came from her bar direct.

Georgia has had two seats—one for her Wayne; and Woods was from Georgia.

Tennessee relinquished her Judge Catron to the national tribunal.

From Alabama came John McKinley; and John A. Campbell, who went out with the South. Born in 1811, by many years the senior of most of the justices, two years older than Judge Bradley, he is often before the court, in seeming undiminished vigor.

Maine has the single honor of her Clifford. Iowa has her Miller; Illinois, her Davis; California, her Field, all of whom came fresh from their several bars; while New Hampshire rejoices in the memory of her Woodbury.

One-half in number of the present States have thus furnished the forty-nine judges (reckoning together chief justices and associates), twelve States have been honored with forty-two, while the court has in fact been the product of eight—New York, Massachusetts, Virginia, Maryland, Ohio, South Carolina, Pennsylvania, and Kentucky. New York has had six, while, of the old States, Vermont, Rhode Island, and Delaware have been neglected. Ohio has had two of her sons at the same time on this bench for the past twenty-five years, and twice crowned with the Chief Justiceship, while Indiana, Michigan, Wisconsin, and several of her other young sisters have had no citizen called to this high position.

These are at the least curious facts in our history, and might warrant a study. Should President Cleveland transfer the Secretary of the Interior to the Supreme Court, Mississippi would be added to the favored States; the bench, so far from losing, would preserve its full measure of strength. It may be doubted whether in brilliancy of intellect it has ever had his equal, nor in any, except Story, perhaps, his peer in culture. R.

WASHINGTON, D. C., November 13, 1887.

Notes.

THOSE who have followed Dr. Holmes with pleasure in his recollections of his trip to Europe in the *Atlantic* can now possess themselves of the whole story in book form, as it has been very handsomely published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., Boston. 'Our Hundred Days in Europe' will be a lasting, and perhaps an historical, illustration of the sort of relation which has grown up between the kin on both sides the sea in our times, largely through Boston, and very largely through literature.

A few months ago we noticed the first volume of Mr. Gomme's 'Romano-British Remains,' in the "Gentleman's Magazine Library." The second part, just published (with continuous paging) by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., contains the rest of the counties (from Staffordshire to Yorkshire), as well as Wales and Scotland, and supplementary notices to the whole. It contains also a series of short papers, occupying nearly one hundred pages, upon the Roman roads in Britain, and some valuable "Historical Notes" upon Cæsar's campaigns in Britain. These are: "A Visit to the Portus Itius," "The Time of Cæsar's Invasion," "Cæsar's Cantian Campaigns," "Samian Ware," and "On Helmets Worn by the Romans." There are two indices—one general; the other, "a place-name index of Roman remains."

A volume of selections from the *Spectator*, edited by Alex. Charles Ewald, F. S. A. (Frederick Warne & Co.), has been added to the "Chandos Classics." Upwards of one hundred of the essays have been included. The character sketches are grouped at the beginning, and the papers on general topics, exclusive of the critical and religious disquisitions, which are altogether discarded, fill up the remaining and larger portion of the volume. A good biographical introduction concerning Steele and

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Addison, with a word for the minor contributors, is furnished.

T. Nelson & Sons send us the ruby 16mo edition of the Bible, printed at the University Press, Oxford, in the revised versions, with the respective prefaces of the revisers, and the supplementary preferred readings of the American Committee. All this occupies about 1,000 pages in the small type already designated, so that the volume is rather for reference than for reading.

In part 13 of the Supplement to 'Brockhaus's Conversations-Lexikon,' the articles are completed, the last page of the *Nachtrag* containing a notice of New York and the projected tunnel under the North River. This is followed by an index of subjects which is very full and valuable, the references probably numbering more than 50,000. There will also be a second index of maps and illustrations, and both will add greatly to the ease of consulting the work. In this part and in No. 14 are given some excellent maps of the German Colonies in New Guinea and the neighboring islands; a railroad map of Germany, distinguishing the State roads from private roads, and marking the places where the principal offices and works of the various companies are situated; a chart showing the distribution of vertebrates throughout the world; and a large general map of Africa. This, for its size, is the fullest which we have yet seen, and, when compared with those accompanying the article Africa in vol. i, will show at a glance what an immense progress in a very few years has been made in our knowledge of the dark continent. We may return to this Supplement hereafter.

The fifth biennial report of the Directors of the Kansas Historical Society is chiefly noteworthy for its showing of local newspaper files, of which there are 4,292 bound volumes. Besides these, there are 1,694 volumes of newspapers published in other States and countries.

Of the leaves of last year's calendar, torn off day by day, we have heretofore had to inquire —"Mais où sont les neiges d'antan?" Now Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have bethought them to insert between brass clasps a removable book of selections, which lies open from week to week, and remains intact at the end of the year. This may be observed in their Holmes Calendar and Whitney Calendar for 1888, the former having a portrait of Dr. Holmes, and both showing a decorative colored background, to which pad and book are attached.

Little & Brown, Boston, send us a translation of 'Les Misérables' in five volumes, which is at once an extremely pretty book to look at, and as easy and pleasant English to read as any reasonably good translation of Victor Hugo's French can be. If something of literal exactness is sacrificed at times, the style and language are made more possible to English ears and tastes, and the impression of the author which is given is upon the whole quite as truthful as would be conveyed by a more strictly literal rendering. The translation used is the English one by Sir Lascelles Wraxall, made in 1862, when 'Les Misérables' first appeared; but passages and chapters omitted in that have been specially translated for this issue, and the text has been restored to its original French form wherever the old translation departed from it by omission or alteration of any kind. The books are beautifully printed at the University Press by John Wilson & Son.

The fourth and fifth volumes of 'Les Misérables' have been issued in the handsome edition published in French by Wm. R. Jenkins, thus completing the work. We have before now spoken in praise of the general excellence and attractiveness of this edition of the most widely known of Victor Hugo's stories. Mr. Jenkins has presented it to the American reader of French in all the luxury of thick paper and large, clear type, and at a price which is much below that of the French editions.

Among the latest books issued in Paris by the house of Hachette is 'Ramona; la Conquête Américaine au Méxique,' *roman anglais* (*sic*), translated, with the authorization of the author, by Mme. de Witt, *née* Guizot.

The second volume of the 'Journal des Goncourt,' covering the period from 1862 to 1865, has just been published by Charpentier.

The Temple newspaper and review known as *Pump Court* has lately been changed to a weekly journal. In its issue for October 27 it gave a facsimile of the anonymous letter to Lord Monteagle which led to the frustration of the Gunpowder Plot. Other facsimiles of interesting historical documents will follow, besides views and descriptions of historic houses. As heretofore, the substance of *Pump Court* will be legal news and discussion.

Harper's Young People for 1887 makes the customary plump volume, in which the old lines have been closely adhered to. Mr. French's infant heads connect it pictorially with its predecessor, and Mr. Howard Pyle continues to stamp his pleasant fancies on the pages of the magazine. "Process" cuts have been perhaps less employed than usual.

Babyhood completes, with its current issue, its third year and volume. The merits of this serious and well-conducted magazine more and more make it worthy to be classed among indispensable household articles. It is published at No. 5 Beekman Street, N. Y.

We learn from the *Gazette Anecdotique* (New York: Duprat) that the Librairie des Bibliophiles has recently begun the publication of a new periodical, the *Carillon Théâtral*. Each number will be devoted to a single new play, giving a complete account of it, together with the various and often opposing opinions of the principal theatrical critics. During the active season of the Paris theatres, from October to June, it will appear three times a month; during the rest of the year, only once a month. The first number was issued October 10, and was devoted to 'Dégommé,' the latest comedy of M. Gondinet.

When M. Caro died last summer, he had just finished the little volume on George Sand he was to contribute to Hachette's collection of the "Grands Écrivains français." Although the publication was already announced at that time, the book did not appear until October 26, but a long extract was given in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* of October 1. This is an account of George Sand's works according to periods, and of the various influences under which they were written. The moralist and philosopher here judges the artist and the woman with great kindliness and admiration, but not always with full sympathy. It is amusing to see the active antipathy of M. Caro for some of the friends and inspirers of George Sand, especially during the period between 1840 and 1848, through all the works of which time the influence of Pierre Leroux and of Lamennais upon his author seems to rouse in M. Caro's criticism an eager asperity quite unlike the moderation of his usual manner. One is tempted to believe that if the writer had lived to publish his work himself, this asperity of tone would have been softened, leaving the literary judgments, which are excellent, unchanged.

M. Albert Delpit, author of 'Mademoiselle de Bressier,' begins a story called 'Thérésine' in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for October 15. The scene is in Louisiana; the time, within the last ten years; the actors, French or Creoles. M. Delpit should make a success of his new novel, for he is himself a native of Louisiana, the son of a wealthy planter ruined by the war. It is said that, after being educated in France, he spent some years in New Orleans, even engaging in journalism there for a short time, but as he returned to France definitively in 1868, before he was twenty, this does not seem probable. He was naturalized in France in 1870, when he was twenty-one, and fought with distinction in the Franco-Prussian war. He has been since then a very prolific and successful writer of novels and plays. 'Mademoiselle de Bressier,' which is by no means one of his best works, appeared first in the form of a novel, and later was turned into a drama—a frequent transformation with M. Delpit, all of whose works, in their original form, suggest an ultimate theatrical destination.

M. Léo Quesnel contributes to the *Revue Bleue* for October 29 an interesting sketch of the present condition of Marocco, derived from the accounts of the most recent travellers in that country. He holds that the interests of France will be best served by the maintenance of its independence under the sovereignty of Muley-Hassan, or, in the event of his death, one of his house, following in this the view of the late M. Gabriel Charmes. This is based chiefly on the fact that the Emperor of Marocco, being a descendant of the Prophet, is regarded as the religious head of the Mohammedan Church throughout Africa, and in case he was dethroned there would be no one sufficiently powerful to resist and possibly prevent another Mahdi rebellion, nor to hold in check the turbulent Mohammedan confraternities. These are eighteen in number, their influence extending from British India to the banks of the Congo, and their principal object in Africa is to obstruct the progress of Christians. He believes, apparently, with M. Le Chatelier, who has recently published a book on 'Les Confréries Musulmanes du Hedjaz,' that only the strong pressure brought to bear upon these zealous propagandists, both at Mecca and by the Emperor of Marocco, prevents them from proclaiming a "Holy War" against all who are not Arab or Berber. In such an event, Algeria and Tunis would be the first to suffer.

Students of Omar Khayyám will find some interesting examples of his quatrains in the November *Macmillan's*, in which the writer tries to illustrate, as well as to specify, in what ways Mr. Fitzgerald's translation is so greatly transformed from the original as almost to be remade. The stanzas are generally not those chosen by the latter; they lack, too, just that touch of genius which made his "large infidel" so near in feeling to the modern spirit.

In the *Academy* for October 29 Mr. W. W. Skeat comes to the rescue of the Shaksperian word *mort* in its obvious signification in the phrase "mort o' the deer" ("Winter's Tale," 1, 2, 118). The commentators' supposition that it meant not 'death,' but 'a flourish blown at the death of the deer,' he traces to a corruption, in other early English passages, of the word *mot*, which means 'a note winded by a huntsman upon his horne,' into *mort*.

Mr. J. E. Keeler, astronomer of the Lick Observatory, California, now more than a year resident on Mount Hamilton, contributes to the *Sidereal Messenger* a few notes on the atmospheric conditions prevailing at the Observatory at different seasons. Appointed to the charge of the extensive time-service of the Observatory, which reaches eastward as far as Ogden by the Central Pacific, and El Paso by the Southern Pacific Railway, Mr. Keeler has for a con-

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tinuous period of some fourteen months made the necessary time determinations, as well as other observations, which afford the means for making a fairly accurate estimate of the chances for good observing at all seasons; and it is a matter for regret that his experience is not fully confirmatory of that of all astronomers who have previously been there, and found the mountain a paradise for the telescopist. Their observations were mainly conducted through the summer and autumn, and tended to show that bad nights were exceptional; while Mr. Keeler is compelled to record a difference against the winter season so enormous that for two months it is doubtful whether astronomical work could be pursued to advantage. If we may judge from the character of the appointments already made to this institution—Mr. J. M. Schaeberle of Ann Arbor and Mr. E. E. Barnard of Nashville having recently accepted the positions offered them—the Lick Observatory will soon drop into line among the foremost astronomical establishments in the world.

The October number of *Petermann's Mitteilungen* contains the first part of a report by Dr. H. V. Jhering of an expedition sent out by "Herman," the German Colonization Society for South America, to examine certain lands in the Brazilian Province of Rio Grande do Sul. A very clear and minute account is given of the delta of the Camacuam, and of this river as far as S. José. It is accompanied by two unusually fine maps. This is followed by an interesting account of some of the "Religious Conceptions and Customs of the Central Esquimaux," by Dr. F. Boas. He dwells particularly on the cult of the goddess Sedna and certain spirits. A peculiar legend is that of a "Flight to the Moon," where the test of endurance is in the not laughing at a comical dance of the Moon-man and his wife.

It is gratifying to be reminded now and then that the German Muse can live and thrive in our cis-Atlantic atmosphere. We have lately received from C. N. Caspar of Milwaukee two small volumes of American-German poetry, of which it may at any rate be said that if the verse in them is not of superlative merit, yet much that is less good is constantly appearing in the fatherland. One is an allegorical narrative poem entitled "Aglaia," the chief fault of which is the monotony of its hundred or more eight-lined stanzas. 'Aglaia' is printed at Milwaukee. The other volume referred to, however, bears the imprint of a Munich house, and is entitled 'Lieder und Sprüche aus dem Volke für das Volk gedichtet, von Frank Siller. Here we find a most cosmopolitan range of subjects and a few really good lyrics. We can, however, bestow no very warm praise upon the Funeral Ode to Garfield, in which very commonplace thought and feeling are wedded to an unpleasing rhythm. Not a little of this volume is taken up with miscellaneous translations of English lyrics. Among these we notice an excellent version of Longfellow's "Excelsior."

We lately mentioned the forthcoming new edition of the 'Dizionario biografico degli scrittori contemporanei' of Professor Angelo De Gubernatis, first published in Florence in 1879, and, despite some errors, the most useful lexicon of living authors in any language. It was particularly serviceable for its sketches of the writers of eastern and southern Europe, concerning whom information is otherwise often inaccessible. The first edition has long been exhausted, and copies have recently sold in Italy for more than double the publication price. Professor De Gubernatis desires that his second corrected and enlarged edition shall be fairly complete in regard to the contemporary literature of America. To this end he has addressed a card to the principal American authors not represented in the former edition, and expresses the hope that, in the absence of American works of reference in the Italian libraries, they will kindly communicate to him some needed biographical and bibliographical details. The printing of the new edition will begin before the close of the year.

The Boston Museum of Fine Arts has recently received a collection of twenty-nine beautiful Greek terracotta figurines found at Myrina, a small town on the western coast of Asia Minor, north of Smyrna. The site was excavated by the French School at Athens a few years ago with extraordinary success as regards the number and beauty of the objects discovered, many of which are now in the Louvre. The Boston collection, although comparatively small, is admirably representative of the variety of types discovered, and of their artistic merit. A few of the figures have the severity of the Tanagra style, but most of them are conceived with much more life and movement, and reflect the spirit of the larger sculptures of the Hellenistic age, to which they belong.

—Mr. Charles Dudley Warner's paper on "Shelley" in the November *Princeton Review* is a warning to facile writers. The mass of material in Shelley's case is so voluminous and complicated, and so little of it is superfluous, that the subject is likely to prove a trap for any one who ventures upon it without proper preparation. This has happened with Mr. Warner, who comes out of the labyrinth, as was to be expected, with an impossible Shelley, so full of incompatible qualities that the critic himself is completely puzzled and confused. The estimate is worthless, on both the poetic and personal sides; and there are not a few statements of fact that are misleading. What reader of Trelawny but would protest against the conversion of one of his most naïvely humorous anecdotes of the poet into this: "His appearance, nude, after a sea-bath, before a dinner party at the Villa Magni, the summer of his death, was the freak of an impish child rather than a man devoid of decency"? It was nothing of the kind, but a mere accident; his clothes had been washed away, and the fun was in the poor bather's stopping a moment to explain his predicament when he found himself unexpectedly in the presence of "company," and remonstrating with them for being there at an unusual time. The statement that "it is amazing that he should not have had a glimpse, in the principle of universal love he sought, of the true character of the historical Jesus as an influence in human affairs," shows superficial acquaintance with his works and thought; the exclamation, in connection with the ideals of 'Prometheus Unbound,' that "that way lies anarchy!" is a piece of astonishing misconception; while the contemporary critics whose remarks Mr. Warner marshals in their black array, said nothing worse than Mr. Warner's "we should expect such poetry from the sickly imagination of a eunuch." A critic who indulges himself in such phrases comes nearer to passing the bounds of decorum than Shelley ever did; but, after all, the article is not meant to be wanton—it is merely incompetent.

—The frontispiece to the October number of *Les Lettres et les Arts* (Charles Scribner's Sons) is a delicately colored portrait of Guy Chabot, Baron of Jarnac, whose famous duel opens with such picturesqueness the reign of Henri Deux. The portrait of Jarnac's adversary, La Chastaigneraye, is also given, bearing, like the other, the little stamp of the Bibliothèque Nationale, and it is probably this one which is the "facsimilé d'un dessin de François Clouet," mentioned in the list of artists on the cover of the number. Both portraits are extremely interesting, but would be still more so if we knew with certainty which of them was the work of the famous artist of the French Renaissance, and to whom the other is due. It is a serious omission for the *revue* not to give with each number the very satisfactory descriptive list of illustrations which appears only at the end of the volume. It would be pleasant to know something more than what mere surmise and intuition tell us, without having to wait three months for the information. The accompanying article, by M. Henri Bouchot, is entitled: "Choses de Duel: le Coup de Jarnac," and is a brilliant and vivid description of what was in reality the last of the solemn trials by combat of the Middle Ages. Michelet has told the same story, in the volume of his History of France, called 'Guerres de Religion,' after contemporary documents—the official account of the heralds of the day, the relations of Vieilleville, and of Brantôme, the last of whom was the nephew of La Chastaigneraye—and with illustrations and additions drawn from the inexhaustible historical treasures of his own imagination. M. Bouchot's paper reflects something of the passionate glow of Michelet's narrative, and of the ardor of his partisanship; and if not a wholly original restatement of the story, it is certainly a very pleasant one. M. Ludovic Halévy, in his "Notes et Souvenirs," gives a striking picture of the moment of the defeat of the Commune and the entrance of the Army of Versailles into Paris, from his own observations and his notes taken at the time. This very dramatic relation extends from May 22 to May 26, including the narrative of the Commandant Trève, the Captain of the French frigate who on May 21 had the honor, as M. Halévy says, of entering Paris before the army, and planting the national colors on the ramparts. The second part of M. Charles d'Héricault's "Idylle de Prairial" fulfils the promise of the beginning, and the completed story is an excellent specimen of one of the new methods of writing historical fiction. Whether M. Albert Vandal's "Roman d'un ambassadeur" represents another of these fashions in fiction it would not be easy to decide without special knowledge; but, whether it is romance or reality, it is well done, and worthy of the historian who wrote 'Une Ambassade française en Orient sous Louis XV.' The large and well-filled pictures of Venetian life in the last century which illustrate this paper are very peculiar, but they are well worth careful examination.

—The École Libre des Sciences Politiques opens this year, according to the *Journal des Débats* of Oct. 24, with five hundred pupils; a new wing and additional work-rooms having been built to accommodate the increasing numbers in the various classes. It now consists of five departments, the administrative, financial, diplomatic, general, and colonial, the last having been organized last year to meet the new requirements occasioned by the French colonial policy. In it are taught the language, history, and customs of the inhabitants of the French colonies and countries protected by France. It is hoped that, by this means, competent colonial administrators will eventually be supplied—a much-felt want in the French service. The *Débats* says that very few now present themselves for examination for Government clerkships who are not graduates of this school. The last number of its *Annales*, the review published by the professors and pupils, contains an article by M. Huot on the "Canadian French and the Development of Parliamentary Liberties in Canada."

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—The formal opening of the Oriental Seminary in connection with the University of Berlin was brilliantly celebrated on October 27 in the presence of the Cultusminister von Gossler, Count von Bismarck, members of the Bundesrath, heads of bureaus, and the Rector and professors of the University. Great interest has been manifested in the foundation of this Seminary not only by scholars, but by the German public, for several reasons. Among these is the success of German travellers in explorations during the last two decades, but, above all, the present colonial policy of the German Empire, which seeks the acquisition of territory and the extension of trade, in order that its foreign influence may equal its present commanding position in European affairs, and at the same time that it may anticipate certain social dangers which are among the questions of the future. The Imperial Diet and the Prussian Parliament have united in the establishment of this Seminary, and it is expected that it will form a centre for scholars whose studies in the Oriental languages have been begun in other universities. The prospectus of the Seminary, issued by the Cultusminister in connection with the Foreign Office, provides that at first instruction shall be given in Chinese, Japanese, Hindustani, Arabic, Persian, Turkish, and Suaheli; that in addition to the study of the language of any country, its religion, laws, customs, geography, statistics, and recent history shall be studied. The aim of the instruction shall be: (1) To impart a knowledge of the grammar and of the vocabulary, such as is in daily oral and written use; (2) practice in speaking and writing the language; (3) an acquaintance with the most popular writings of a public and private character; and (4) a knowledge of the land and people. For every language to be taught a special course of instruction is provided, consisting of a theoretical and a practical part. The theoretical instruction will be given by German teachers, the practical exercises will be given by native teachers. The length of the courses in the different languages is fixed as follows: In Chinese, from six to eight semesters; Japanese, six semesters; Hindustani, Arabic, Persian, and Turkish, four semesters each; Suaheli, two semesters. Additional courses will be organized at the beginning of each academic year, as may be found necessary. In order to secure the best results, the number of students in any course is not, as a rule, to exceed twelve. Students without means will be taught gratuitously, and stipends of 300 marks a semester are provided for students of special excellence, which will be determined by the results of the studies of the first semester; other students pay a small lecture-room fee (*Auditoriengeld*), and 20 marks a semester, which will be used for a library fund. Examinations occur at the end of a course in any language.

—For admission to the Seminary, students must be regularly admitted to the University or receive the Rector's permission to study as guests (*Hospitanten*). It is further provided that candidates for the position of translator in the foreign service who have passed these examinations satisfactorily, and have the other requisite qualifications, shall receive the preference in appointments. Dr. Karl Eduard Sachau, Professor of Arabic in the University, has been appointed Director of the Seminary. In the first semester two courses of practical exercises in Chinese will be given by native Chinamen; one will have special reference to North Chinese, the second to South Chinese. The two courses in Arabic will include the dialect of Syria and of Egypt. In addition to the assigned courses, public lectures of general interest will be given on Saturday evenings. The old Bourse has been fitted up for the reception of the Seminary. It is in the immediate vicinity of the museums, and but a few minutes' walk from the University. The Cultusminister, in formally conveying the Seminary to the University, emphasized the fact that it was not designed to supersede or limit the present work in the Oriental languages in the University. Its aim is practical, not scientific, and lies outside the study of philology—namely, to equip the student for intercourse with foreign nations, to be of service to the dragoman, the missionary, the officers of museums, the traveller, the merchant, the technical student. He regarded the Seminary, as at present constituted, as but a germ of what it will become.

—Harvard College Observatory, having come into the possession of the Boyden Fund for the purpose of obtaining astronomical observations at elevated stations, Professor Pickering is prosecuting experimental researches as to the best method of obtaining photographs of celestial objects. Years ago Mr. Rutherfurd demonstrated the practicability of converting any refracting telescope into an equivalent photographic instrument, by mounting in front of the visual object-glass a convex lens of long focus. Such lenses have been adapted to a number of telescopes, and used in celestial photography, with entire success; but the cost of the additional lens and the introduction of two more surfaces constitute sufficient objection to the method to lead to inquiry after other methods of accomplishing the same result. Professor Pickering finds that, if the surfaces of the crown glass are given different curvatures, the desired result may be obtained by a slight modification of the construction of the cell, whereby the flint lens may be moved towards the focal plane. When an object-glass of this construction is used for direct or optical observation, the two lenses, flint and crown, are in contact, the more convex surface of the crown coming next to the concave surface of the flint. When it is desired to use the telescope for photographic work, the lenses are separated by a suitable interval in the cell, and the outer or crown lens is reversed, so that the rays strike the more convex surface first. In order to determine whether this principle of construction might be available for a large objective to be made for experimental work undertaken with the aid of the Boyden Fund, Professor Pickering directed Messrs. Alvan Clark & Sons to construct a small object-glass on the new plan. This proving to be well adapted to its purposes, the larger one, of 13 inches aperture and 180 inches focal length, has been recently completed by the same makers; and it is found upon trial that the images are excellent for direct observation, while the photographic images prove to be equally good when the lenses are separated three inches and the crown glass reversed. This important discovery makes it possible for every observatory purchasing a visual telescope to own also a photographic outfit of equal power at trifling additional expense.

DARWIN'S LIFE AND LETTERS—I.

Life and Letters of Charles Darwin. With an autobiographic chapter by Francis Darwin. London: John Murray. 3 vols. (To be published next week in New York by D. Appleton & Co. in 2 vols.)

HERE we have, at length, the natural complement of that full line of duodecimos which stand on so many shelves, which have interested so many readers, and so much influenced scientific and philosophic thought. A perhaps unusual amount of this interest has been personal; for, although many were repelled by Darwin's doctrine, all were attracted by the man, as he quite unconsciously revealed himself in his writings. As his letters show, Darwin thought he was addressing only the limited circle of naturalists, and he expected rather to diminish their objections to his theory of evolution than to win their assent. We see that the wide popularity of 'The Origin of Species' was a genuine surprise, as also was the personal admiration and good feeling which his unaffected modesty and candor, and his disposition to maximize rather than to minimize all objections to his theory, very naturally elicited. Thus prepossessed, and desirous to know more of the man himself, and of his ways and doings from youth to age, we take up with eagerness the three volumes of 'Life and Letters,' which the son who most shared the father's pursuits has edited and published.

The first volume opens with a brief account of the Darwin family, contains the "Autobiography" in eighty pages, a chapter of "Reminiscences" by the editor, and selections of letters down to the beginning of the year 1854. The second volume covers the period of the growth and development of "The Origin of Species." The third brings the correspondence down to the close. The Autobiography and the Reminiscences offer us more matter than we can use in the present article. From these we will cull as we read.

The Autobiography somehow reminds us of that of Franklin, which we have not read since boyhood. Indeed, more than one point of likeness might be traced between the two men. The editor tells us that his father's autobiographical recollections were written for his children without any thought that they would ever be published. "To *many this may seem an impossibility*, but those who know my father will understand how it was not only possible, but natural." It was mainly written in June and July, 1876, and the manuscript is headed, "Recollections of the Development of My Mind and Character." About the time Darwin's mother died, when he was a little over eight years old, he was sent to a day school at Shrewsbury. Already, he says, "my taste for natural history, and more especially for collecting, was well developed. I tried to make out the names of plants, and collected all sorts of things—shells, seals, franks, coins, and minerals." In one little particular the boy was not the father of the man; he says he was then addicted to fibbing:

"One little event during this year has fixed itself very firmly in my mind, and I hope that it has done so from my conscience having been afterwards sorely troubled by it; it is curious as showing that apparently I was interested at this early age in the variability of plants! I told another little boy (I believe it was Leighton, who afterwards became a well-known lichenologist and botanist) that I could produce variously colored polyanthuses and primroses by watering them with certain colored fluids, which was of course a monstrous fable, and had never been tried by me. I may here also confess that as a little boy I was much given to inventing deliberate falsehoods, and this was always done for the sake of causing excitement. For instance, I once gathered much valuable fruit from my father's trees and hid it in the shrubbery, and then ran in breathless haste to spread the news that I had discovered a hoard of stolen fruit."

His detestation of cruelty, which comes out in various ways, it seems, was earlier developed than his entire veracity. In this early boyhood, he had

"a strong taste for angling, and would sit for any number of hours on the bank of a river or pond watching the float; when at M—— I was told that I could kill the worms with salt and water, and from that day I never spitted a

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living worm, though at the expense probably of some loss of success. Once as a very little boy while at the day school, or before that time, I acted cruelly, for I beat a puppy, I believe, simply from enjoying the sense of power; but the beating could not have been severe, for the puppy did not howl, of which I feel sure, as the spot was near the house. This act lay heavily on my conscience, as is shown by my remembering the exact spot where the crime was committed."

In another connection he remarks that "I can say in my own favor that I was as a boy humane, but I owed this entirely to the instruction and example of my sisters. I doubt, indeed, whether humanity is a natural or innate quality." Another trait of his boyhood is worth noting. From his eleventh to his sixteenth year he was at a boarding-school in Shrewsbury, where he had the advantage of living the life of a true schoolboy:

"But as the distance was hardly more than a mile to my home, I very often ran there in the longer intervals between the callings over and before locking up at night. This, I think, was in many ways advantageous to me by keeping up home affections and interests. I remember in the early part of my school life that I often had to run very quickly to be in time, and from being a fleet runner was generally successful; but when in doubt I prayed earnestly to God to help me, and I well remember that I attributed my success to the prayers and not to my quick running, and marvelled how generally I was aided."

The school was strictly classical, and, "as a means of education to me, was simply a blank.' His father and his masters took him for a very ordinary boy, rather below the common standard of intellect. Yet he remembers that he had "a keen pleasure in understanding any complex subject or thing," and that when he was taught Euclid by a private tutor, the clear geometrical proofs gave him intense satisfaction. He remembered also his delight when the principle of the vernier of a barometer was explained to him by his uncle. He was fond of reading the historical plays of Shakspere and the recently published poems of Byron and Scott, but, as we shall see, this disposition did not last. On the other hand,

"early in my school days a boy had a copy of 'The Wonders of the World,' which I often read, and disputed with other boys about the veracity of some of the statements, and I believe that this book first gave me a wish to travel in remote countries, which was ultimately fulfilled by the voyage of the *Beagle*. In the latter part of my school life I became passionately fond of shooting; I do not believe that any one could have shown more zeal for the holy cause than I did for shooting birds."

This passion lasted for a good while. After he had taken up geology in his last years at Cambridge, at the close of a tour in Wales which he made with Sedgwick, he hurried down to his uncle's country-place for shooting; "for at that time I should have thought myself mad to give up the first days of partridge-shooting for geology or any other science." And it is in one of his letters about this time that this sentence occurs: "Upon my soul, it is only about a fortnight to the First; then, if there is a bliss on earth that is it." But not long after this his quick feeling for suffering, whether of man or beast, overcame this passionate love of sport. Entries in the Autobiography substantially confirm the following reminiscence which was supplied to the editor by an old college friend:

"Before he left Cambridge he told me that he had made up his mind not to shoot any more; that he had had two days' shooting at his friend's, Mr. Owen of Woodhouse; and that on the second day, when going over some of the ground they had beaten on the day before, he picked up a bird not quite dead, but lingering from a shot it had received on the previous day; and that it had made and left such a painful impression on his mind, that he could not reconcile it to his conscience to continue to derive pleasure from a sport which inflicted such cruel suffering."

At the boys' school at Shrewsbury he read White's 'Selborne,' and fell to observing the habits of birds, and to "wondering why every gentleman did not become an ornithologist." He thinks, from certain memories, that he must have observed insects with some care even at the age of ten, and that he thought of collecting all the insects he could find dead, "for, on consulting my sister, I concluded that it was not right to kill insects for the sake of making a collection." Towards the close of his school life his brother was working hard at chemistry—of course out of and quite away from school—and in assisting him he got interested in the subject. This, he says,

"was the best part of my education at school, for it showed me practically the meaning of experimental science. The fact that we worked at chemistry somehow got known at school, and, as it was an unprecedented fact, I was nicknamed *Gas*. I was also publicly rebuked by the head-master, Dr. Butler, for thus wasting my time on such useless subjects; and he called me, very unjustly, a '*poco curante*'; and, as I did not understand what he meant, it seemed to me a fearful reproach."

In October, 1825, as he "was doing no good at school," his father took him away at a rather earlier age than usual, and he joined his brother at Edinburgh University. The latter was completing his medical studies, and the younger Darwin was to begin them. "But soon after this period I became convinced, from various small circumstances, that my father would leave me property enough to subsist on with some comfort, though I never imagined that I should be so rich a man as I am; but my belief was sufficient to check any strenuous effort to learn medicine." Indeed, from his account of it, the study was not made inviting.

"The instruction at Edinburgh was altogether by lectures, and these were intolerably dull, with the exception of those on chemistry by Hope; but to my mind there are no advantages and many disadvantages in lectures compared with reading. Dr. Duncan's lectures on Materia Medica at eight o'clock on a winter's morning are something fearful to remember. Dr. —— made his lectures on human anatomy as dull as he was himself, and the subject disgusted me. [There are survivors who can fill the blank and recall the memory.] It has proved one of the greatest evils of my life that I was not urged to practise dissection, for I should soon have got over my disgust; and the practice would have been invaluable for all my future work. This has been an irremediable evil, as well as my incapacity to draw. I also attended regularly the clinical wards in the hospital. Some of the cases distressed me a good deal, and I still have vivid pictures before me of some of them; but I was not so foolish as to allow this to lessen my attendance. . . . I also attended on two occasions the operating theatre in the hospital, and saw two very bad operations, one on a child; but I rushed away before they were completed. Nor did I ever attend again, for hardly any inducement would have been strong enough to make me do so; this being long before the blessed days of chloroform."

Among his first-year acquaintances at Edinburgh, although much his senior, was Dr. Grant the zoölogist:

"He one day, when we were walking together, burst forth in high admiration of Lamarck and his views on evolution. I listened in silent astonishment, and, as far as I can judge, without any effect on my mind. I had previously read the 'Zoonomia' of my grandfather, in which similar views are maintained, but without producing any effect on me. Nevertheless, it is probable that the hearing, rather early in life, such views maintained and praised may have favored my upholding them under a different form in my 'Origin of Species.' At this time I admired greatly the 'Zoonomia;' but on reading it a second time, after an interval of ten or fifteen years, I was much disappointed; the proportion of speculation being so large to the facts given."

Grant introduced him to the Plinian Society, where, in 1826, he read the account of his "one interesting little discovery. This was, that the so-called ova of Flustra had the power of independent movement by means of cilia, and were, in fact, larvæ."

We cannot omit the following. To the older naturalists the name of the Neptunian professor is not veiled. But how it carries one back!

"During my second year at Edinburgh I attended X.'s lectures on geology and zoölogy, but they were incredibly dull. The sole effect they produced on me was the determination never as long as I lived to read a book on geology or in any way to study the science. Yet I feel sure that I was prepared for a philosophical treatment of the subject; for an old Mr. Cotton in Shropshire, who knew a good deal about rocks, had pointed out to me two or three years previously a well-known large erratic boulder in the town of Shrewsbury called the 'bell-stone'; he told me that there was no rock of the same kind nearer than Cumberland or Scotland, and he solemnly assured me that the world would come to an end before any one would be able to explain how this stone came where it now lay. This produced a deep impression on me, and I meditated over this wonderful stone. So that I felt the keenest delight when I first read of the action of icebergs in transporting boulders, and I gloried in the progress of geology. Equally striking is the fact that I, though now only sixty-seven years old, heard the professor, in a field lecture at Salisbury Craigs, discoursing on a trap-dyke, with amygdaloidal margins and the strata indurated on each side, with volcanic rocks all around us, say that it was a fissure filled with sediment from above; adding with a sneer that there were men who maintained that it had been injected from beneath in a molten condition. When I think of this lecture, I do not wonder that I determined never to attend to geology."

Notwithstanding, he did take to geology in his last year at Cambridge, although he "did not even attend Sedgwick's eloquent and interesting lectures," but, through his friend Henslow's instigation, made a trip into North Wales with the former, apropos to which we have the subjoined extract from the autobiography, a fit pendant to the preceding:

"This tour was of decided use in teaching me a little how to make out the geology of a country. Sedgwick often sent me on a line parallel to his, telling me to bring back specimens of the rocks and to mark the stratification on a map. I have little doubt that he did this for my good, as I was too ignorant to have aided him. On this tour I had a striking instance how easy it is to overlook phenomena, however conspicuous, before they have been observed by any one. We spent many hours in Cwm Idwal, examining all the rocks with extreme care, as Sedgwick was anxious to find fossils in them; but neither of us saw a trace of the wonderful glacial phenomena all around us; we did not notice the plainly scored rocks, the perched boulders, the lateral and terminal moraines. Yet these phenomena are so conspicuous that, as I declared in a paper published many years afterwards in the *Philosophical Magazine*, a house burnt down by fire did not tell its story more plainly than did this valley. If it had still been filled by a glacier, the phenomena would have been less distinct than they now are."

Why Darwin left Edinburgh and went to Cambridge, from 1829 to 1831, is briefly told as follows:

"After having spent two sessions in Edinburgh, my father perceived, or he heard from my sisters, that I did not like the thought of being a physician, so he proposed that I should become a clergyman. He was very properly vehement against my turning into an idle sporting man, which then seemed my probable destination. I asked for some time to consider, as from what little I had heard or thought on the subject I had scruples about declaring my belief in all the dogmas of the Church of England; though otherwise I liked the thought of being a country clergyman. Accordingly I read with care 'Pearson on the Creeds' and a few other books on divinity; and as I did not then in the least doubt the strict and literal truth of every word in the Bible, I soon per-

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suaded myself that our Creed must be fully accepted. Considering how fiercely I have been attacked by the orthodox, it seems ludicrous that I once intended to be a clergyman. Nor was this intention and my father's wish ever formally given up, but died a natural death when, on leaving Cambridge, I joined the *Beagle* as naturalist. If the phrenologists are to be trusted, I was well fitted in one respect to be a clergyman. A few years ago the secretaries of a German psychological society asked me earnestly by letter for a photograph of myself; and some time afterwards I received the proceedings of one of the meetings, in which it seemed that the shape of my head had been the subject of a public discussion, and one of the speakers declared that I had the bump of reverence developed enough for ten priests."

It was through Baden Powell that Capt. Fitzroy offered to give up a part of his own small cabin to any proper young man who would volunteer to go with him, without pay, as naturalist to the voyage of the *Beagle*. Henslow was consulted, and he recommended Darwin. The latter had got to be known at Cambridge as "the man who walks with Henslow"; his were the only scientific lectures which Darwin attended, though he says that he did not study botany; and there was a rare friendship between the two. Not long before, Darwin had read Humboldt's 'Personal Narrative,' and had been so stirred that he had "copied long passages about Teneriffe and made inquiries about ships by which to go there. He jumped at Fitzroy's offer. But his father objected strongly, yet fortunately adding the words: "If you can find any man of common sense who advises you to go, I will give my consent." When the son, who says he had been rather extravagant at Cambridge, suggested that he should be deuced clever to spend more than his allowance while on board the *Beagle*, the father responded, "But they tell me you are very clever." So the offer was declined; but the uncle, Josiah Wedgwood, heard of it, took a long drive to confer with Dr. Darwin, and convinced him that it would be wise to accept the proposal, and, being eminently a "man of common sense," the father's objections were overcome.

Very few pages of the Autobiography are given to the cruise of the *Beagle*, but there are a good number of letters in the latter part of the volume. Brief, also, is the narrative from the time of Darwin's return, in the autumn of 1836, to his marriage, January 29, 1839, and to the removal to Down in the autumn of 1844. There is one interesting record: "In July 1 [1836] I opened my first note-book for facts in relation to the origin of species, about which I had long reflected, and never ceased working for the next twenty years." He gives sketches of some of the remarkable men whom he had well known, such as Lyell, or occasionally met, such as Robert Brown, Herschel, Humboldt, the old Lord Stanhope (who said—much to the horror of his son the historian—"Why don't you give up your fiddle-faddle of geology and zoölogy and turn to the occult sciences?"), Sydney Smith (of whom he records two new sayings about Lady Cork), and Carlyle, who naturally "thought it a most ridiculous thing that any one should care whether a glacier moved a little quicker or a little slower, or moved at all." He mentions "a funny dinner at my brother's, where, amongst a few others, were Babbage and Lyell, both of whom liked to talk. Carlyle, however, silenced every one by haranguing during the whole dinner on the advantages of silence. After dinner, Babbage, in his grimmest manner, thanked Carlyle for his very interesting lecture on silence." Considering how very good Darwin's brother was to Carlyle and his wife, the Sage of Chelsea might have had better taste than to throw off the ill-natured saying of the Darwins which we remember. Darwin's own estimate of Carlyle is discriminating, but not laudatory. The text of it is Kingsley's astonishing remark that Carlyle was "a man well fitted to advance silence"; which reads like a joke.

Very interesting to read, though we must pass it mainly by, is Mr. Darwin's account of his life during its golden years, from 1842 to 1876, and even to 1881. He briefly refers to his ill-health and suffering, which enjoined a very retired life, says his chief enjoyment and sole employment has been scientific, the excitement of which drives away or drives from memory his daily discomfort; and that he has nothing to record except the publication of his several books. He explains how each arose, and gives his opinion of its character. The narrative should be read in connection with the correspondence, the principal staple of the three volumes. All this we defer; but no one who takes up the Autobiography will be apt to lay it down until he has gone through it.

At its close (written in 1881) the author thinks it may be worth while to try to analyze the mental qualities and the conditions on which his success has depended, though aware that no man can do this correctly; and we are naturally much interested in what Mr. Darwin thought of himself. He says:

"I have no great quickness of apprehension or wit. . . . I am, therefore, a poor critic; a paper or book when first read generally excites my admiration, and it is only after considerable reflection that I perceive the weak points. . . . My memory is extensive, yet hazy; it suffices to make me cautious by vaguely telling me that I have observed or read something opposed to the conclusion which I am drawing, or, on the other hand, in favor of it. . . . So poor in one sense is my memory, that I have never been able to remember for more than a few days a single date or a line of poetry.

"Some of my critics have said, 'Oh, he is a good observer, but he has no power of reasoning.' I do not think that this can be true, for the 'Origin of Species' is one long argument from the beginning to the end, and it has convinced not a few able men. No one could have written it without having some power of reasoning. I have a fair share of invention, and of common sense or judgment, such as every fairly successful lawyer or doctor must have, but not, I believe, in any higher degree.

"On the favorable side of the balance, I think that I am superior to the common run of men in noticing things which easily escape attention and in observing them carefully. My industry has been nearly as great as it could have been in the observation and collection of facts. What is far more important, my love of natural science has been steady and ardent. This pure love has, however, been much aided by the ambition to be esteemed by my fellow-naturalists. From my early youth I have had the strongest desire to understand or explain whatever I observed; that is, to group all facts under some general laws. These causes combined have given me the patience to reflect or ponder for any number of years over any unexplained problem. As far as I can judge, I am not apt to follow blindly the lead of other men. I have steadily endeavored to keep my mind free so as to give up any hypothesis, however much beloved (and I cannot resist forming one on every subject), as soon as facts are shown to be opposed to it. Indeed, I have had no choice but to act in this manner, for, with the exception of the Coral Reefs, I cannot remember a single first-formed hypothesis which had not after a time to be given up or greatly modified. This has naturally led me to distrust greatly deductive reasoning in the mixed sciences. On the other hand, I am not very sceptical, a frame of mind which I believe to be injurious to the progress of science. . . .

"My habits are methodical, and this has been of not a little use for my particular line of work. Lastly, I have had ample leisure from not having to earn my own bread. Even ill-health, though it has annihilated several years of my life, has saved me from the distractions of society and amusement.

"Therefore my success as a man of science, whatever this may have amounted to, has been determined, as far as I can judge, by complex and diversified mental qualities and conditions. Of these, the most important have been—the love of science, unbounded patience in long reflecting over any subject, industry in observing and collecting facts, and a fair share of invention as well as of common sense. With such moderate abilities as I possess, it is truly surprising that I should have influenced to a considerable extent the belief of scientific men on some important points."

These are the closing words of the Autobiography. But we must go back to a few remarks which Darwin makes upon changes between earlier and later years:

"I am not conscious of any change in my mind during the last thirty years, excepting in one point presently to be mentioned, nor, indeed, could any change have been expected, unless one of general deterioration. . . . I think that I have become a little more skilful in guessing right explanations and in devising experimental tests; but this may probably be the result of mere practice, and of a larger store of knowledge. I have as much difficulty as ever in expressing myself clearly and concisely; and this difficulty has caused me a very great loss of time; but it has had the compensating advantage of forcing me to think long and intently about every sentence, and thus I have been led to see errors in reasoning and in my own observations or those of others.

"I have said that in one respect my mind has changed during the last twenty or thirty years. Up to the age of thirty, or beyond it, poetry of many kinds, such as the works of Milton, Gray, Byron, Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Shelley, gave me great pleasure, and even as a schoolboy I took intense delight in Shakespeare, especially in the historical plays. I have also said that formerly pictures gave me considerable, and music very great delight. But now for many years I cannot endure to read a line of poetry: I have tried lately to read Shakespeare, and found it so intolerably dull that it nauseated me. I have also almost lost my taste for pictures or music. . . . My mind seems to have become a kind of machine for grinding general laws out of large collections of facts, but why this should have caused the atrophy of that part of the brain alone on which the higher tastes depend, I cannot conceive."

He deplores this loss, and says that if he had to live his life again, he would make it a rule to read some poetry and listen to some music, at least once a week, since the atrophied faculties might perhaps have been kept sound through use; and that the deprivation, besides a loss of happiness, may possibly be injurious to the intellect, and probably to the moral character. Singularly enough the repugnance did not extend to novels. These, he declares,

"though not of a very high order, have been for years a wonderful relief and pleasure to me, and I often bless all novelists. A surprising number have been read aloud to me, and I like all, if moderately good, and if they do not end unhappily—against which a law ought to be passed. A novel, according to my taste, does not come into the first class unless it contains some person whom one can thoroughly love, and if a pretty woman all the better."

There is a simple explanation of this enjoyment of novel reading, or rather of having novels read to him. From the time of the voyage of the *Beagle* to the end of his most laborious and productive life he was an almost constant, though variable, sufferer from an illness not unlike seasickness, which was always aggravated by mental application, and accompanied by insomnia. As the editor states at the close of that most charming and instructive chapter (pp. 108–160) of "Reminiscences of My Father's Life," which completely brings the man to view in manner as he lived—"for nearly forty years he never knew one day of the health of ordinary men, and thus his life was one long struggle against the weariness and strain of sickness," and all his work was done in snatches and intervals. The discomfort was assuaged by listening to novel-reading. We note the editor's remark that "his expression showed no signs of the continual discomfort he suffered." Indeed, he appeared to his friends to have a particularly joyous life.

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Many readers will turn with interest to the intercalated chapter viii., of the first volume, which brings together what is to be said of Darwin's religious views. In 1879 he wrote to a correspondent:

"What my own views may be is a question of no consequence to any one but myself. But, as you ask, I may state that my judgment often fluctuates. . . . In my most extreme fluctuations I have never been an Atheist in the sense of denying the existence of a God. I think that generally (and more and more as I grow older) but not always, an Agnostic would be the more correct description of my state of mind."

One gathers from the correspondence that the qualifying member of the sentence might have been emphasized. Again:

"It is impossible to answer your question briefly; and I am not sure that I could do so, even if I wrote at some length. But I may say that the impossibility of conceiving that this grand and wondrous universe, with our conscious selves, arose through chance, seems to me the chief argument for the existence of God; but whether this is an argument of real value, I have never been able to decide. . . . Nor can I overlook the difficulty from the immense amount of suffering through the world. I am also induced to defer to a certain extent to the judgment of the many able men who have fully believed in God; but here again I see how poor an argument this is. The safest conclusion seems to me that the whole subject is beyond the scope of man's intellect; but man can do his duty. . . . For myself, I do not believe that there ever has been any revelation. As for a future life, every man must judge for himself between conflicting vague probabilities."

In several pages of the chapter, printed in this connection (although they form a part of the Autobiography, written in the year 1876), Mr. Darwin gives a kind of history of the change in his thoughts. It begins: "Whilst on board the *Beagle* I was quite orthodox, and I remember being heartily laughed at by several of the officers (though themselves orthodox) for quoting the Bible as an unanswerable authority on some point of morality. I suppose it was the novelty of the argument that amused them." . . . He "gradually came to disbelieve in Christianity as a divine revelation. . . . Disbelief crept over me at a very slow rate, but was at last complete. The rate was so slow that I felt no distress."

Some pages follow in which the argument from design in nature is concluded to fail, "now that the law of natural selection has been discovered," and in which he touches the question, "Whether the world as a whole is a good or bad one," giving his judgment that "happiness decidedly prevails, though this would be very difficult to prove," and that, "if the truth of this conclusion be granted, it harmonizes well with the effects which we might expect from natural selection."

"That there is much suffering in the world, no one disputes. Some have attempted to explain this with reference to man by imagining that it serves for his moral improvement. But the number of men in the world is as nothing compared with that of all other sentient beings, and they often suffer greatly without any moral improvement. This very old argument from the existence of suffering against the existence of an intelligent First Cause seems to me a strong one; whereas, as just remarked, the presence of much suffering agrees well with the view that all organic beings have been developed through variation and natural selection.

"At the present day the most usual argument for the existence of an intelligent God is drawn from the deep inward conviction and feelings which are experienced by most persons.

"Formerly I was led by feelings such as those just referred to (although I do not think that the religious sentiment was ever strongly developed in me), to the firm conviction of the existence of God and of the immortality of the soul. . . . I well remember my conviction that there is more in man than the mere breath of his body. But now the grandest scenes would not cause any such convictions and feelings to rise in my mind. It may be truly said that I am like a man who has become color-blind, and the universal belief by men of the existence of redness makes my present loss of perception of not the least value as evidence.

"Another source of conviction in the existence of God, connected with the reason, and not with the feeling, impresses me as having much more weight. This follows from the extreme difficulty, or rather impossibility, of conceiving this immense and wonderful universe, including man with his capacity of looking far backwards and far into futurity, as the result of blind chance or necessity. When thus reflecting I feel compelled to look to a First Cause having an intelligent mind in some degree analogous to that of man; and I deserve to be called a Theist. This conclusion was strong in my mind about the time, as far as I can remember, when I wrote the 'Origin of Species'; and it is since that time that it has very gradually, with many fluctuations, become weaker. But then arises the doubt, Can the mind of mind, which has, as I fully believe, been developed from a mind as low as that possessed by the lowest animals, be trusted when it draws such grand conclusions?"

It is noteworthy that, after stating and truly feeling that there was nothing in the theory of natural selection that need disturb religious convictions, it seems to have had that very effect upon him. It is also notable that his great difficulty was the very old one, of the existence of evil in the world—one which, however insoluble, was not at all raised, but is in some sense mitigated, by the theory of natural selection. Finally, and in respect to the whole aspect of such questions, one may find reason to conclude that the prevalent Latin-Church conception of transcendent Divinity—of a God apart from the world and operating extraneously—may have operated as unhappily in natural as in Christian theology; and that the fuller recognition of Divine immanence, of the Divine presence in nature and in the course of nature, might help to lessen some of these difficulties.

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Mr. Incoul's Misadventure. By Edgar Saltus. Benjamin & Bell.

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Edith. By Mrs. Ottilie Bertron. Jenkins & McCowan.

Button's Inn. By Albion W. Tourgee. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

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Sea Spray; or, Facts and Fancies of a Yachtsman. By S. G. W. Benjamin. Benjamin & Bell.

A Game of Chance. By Anne Sheldon Coombs. D. Appleton & Co.

MR. BRET HARTE'S stories invariably have the charm which is inseparable from a well-constructed narrative. He has always something interesting happening, generally something amusing to note, and occasionally something so near to nature that it is beyond art. In spite of the unevenness of his work, one never can doubt the authorship of any page of it; and though his may be in some respects a bad style, it is none the less style, and is entitled to the full ratio of influence which is accorded to that illusive and indefinable element in literature. 'The Crusade of the Excelsior' is in every respect characteristic of Mr. Harte's general methods. In construction, aim, and execution it is neither better nor worse than any one of half-a-dozen of his books that might be named. The plot, while not at all impossible or unreal, is still fanciful enough to admit of continual surprises and absorbing complications. Perhaps the conception of the Todos Santos community, cut off from the outside world by the impenetrable fogs and mists of the Pacific, and living with only the knowledge and in the spirit of past centuries, would be too much for a devoted realist to forgive; but to the ordinary novel-reader, who seeks merely to be amused, the ludicrousness of the predicament into which the matter-of-fact passengers of the *Excelsior* are thrown when arrested by the Commandante of the Presidio as revolutionists, is too delightful to admit of cavil. Perhaps, too, an ardent admirer of the commonplace in art might take objection to the figure of Señor Perkins, whose singular ambitions and queer conceits count for so much both in the machinery of the tale and in the amusement which it affords. But a just and deliberate estimate of the story in all its aspects must admit that Señor Perkins could not be spared, and further, that nothing in the book could be materially changed without its being spoiled. It might be, on a general level, closer to life, but it would not be Mr. Harte, nor would it be nearly so good a novel out of which to get amusement and entertainment.

What merit there is in the 'Thirteen Stories of the Far West' told by Mr. Heermans lies in quite other directions; but the fact that they have very little merit of any sort might as well be said first as last. They are written in the rollicking, careless, "reportorial" style which may deceive some readers into the notion that the writer has caught the "true Western flavor." From a literary standpoint they are quite worthless, and it is only the fact that now and then the author gives to his work a touch of truth about the Far West which endows them with any value whatever. But as for any real conception of the aspects of civilization on our great prairies, or anything like a firm grasp and understanding of the manifestations which show the growth of a sectional character, both there and in the mountain towns still further west, Mr. Heermans has not shown that he possesses these qualities.

It is impossible, after reading 'Mr. Incoul's Misadventure,' to lay the book down without a sense of disappointment, a dissatisfied feeling as if one had been cheated out of one's dues as a novel-reader. Just why this should be is hard to say, because the story has all the outward semblance of a novel. There are but few characters, it is true, but they are quite lifelike; there is a sufficient, though simple plot, which is only strained in order to be striking; while the style might be called a hard finish, it is so terse, so straightforward, and so perfectly adapted to conveying the writer's meaning. But, notwithstanding the logical consecutiveness of the incidents, the resulting tragedy does not force upon one, as all genuine tragedies must do, the realization that it was inevitable. Perhaps one feels disappointed with the story because it is developed rather on the lines of what Sidney Lanier calls the novelist's omniscience than on the natural lines of growth and character. The impression that every incident, every sentence, is merely the arbitrary choice of the author, is unavoidable. One sees beyond a doubt that Mr. Saltus had the entire conception quite complete and well defined in his imagination before he began writing; and while this method has been recommended to young writers by more than one successful novelist, we know that Hawthorne and Thackeray wrote differ-

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ently, and that 'Uncle Tom's Cabin' "wrote itself." Mr. Saltus's literary training and habits of mind serve to increase this impression of arbitrary choice and cool calculation of effects and artistic values. He is the author of a work on the 'Anatomy of Negation,' and has been called "a scientific pessimist"—until one's mind refuses to be deceived into taking the story for anything more than the ingenious calculation of a trained intellect. Yet it purports to be a study of passion.

The author of 'Daddy Dave' explains in her preface that the main if not the only incentive in preparing the book for the press was to pay a tribute of affection to a faithful and beloved family servant. This may do well enough; but on no other grounds is the existence of the sketch justifiable for a moment. It is fragmentary and unfinished to the last degree, and affords one more example of the truth that realities do not of themselves either create interest or make a narrative seem natural. In view of the broader and all-important questions which were settled by our civil war, too, one cannot avoid a slight feeling of impatience with the sentimental regret in which the author indulges, notwithstanding her reiterated protestations of resignation and acquiescence.

Mrs. Bertron, however, writes her novel for its own sake. It is true that it is not a great novel, or even an unusually good one; but one must admire the evident enthusiasm and earnestness of it. The interest is not concentrated enough to sustain itself evenly or sufficiently throughout, and one believes that if the author had attempted less, she would have accomplished more. Yet she need have no reason to feel discouraged, for there are many points in 'Edith' which indicate the ability as well as determination to do good work.

In order to realize how entirely modern are the forms of literature embraced by the novel, it is only necessary to call to mind the number of stories which take up in one shape or another the study of some phase of religion, and consider it abstractly—merely, that is, as the growth of an institution. Mr. Tourgee, who, it is safe to surmise, will never write a novel without touching on some movement or development of the body politic, has attempted a very mild and inexhaustive study of the origin of Mormonism in his tale of 'Button's Inn.' The few pages of his preface, however, really contain more on this subject than all the rest of the book, and without these perhaps many readers would have failed to see in the Mormon chapters anything more than their bearing on the story. For the story of itself really has a genuine and wholesome interest, and one follows the fortunes of Dotty Button and her two worthy, generous lovers with a feeling which grows to be personal and warm-hearted. The success in life of the hero is not phenomenal nor undeserved, and there is no one who has the true American spirit that will think any the less of him for attempting and achieving it. In fact, the modern spirit all over the world considers a man who does not want money as materially defective, and would vote Plutarch's words in praise of Coriolanus, that "it is the higher accomplishment to use money well than arms; but not to need it is more noble than to use it," entirely obsolete.

What Plutarch would have thought of 'The Great Bank Robbery' is more of a mystery than the robbery itself was to the detectives. Not that the story is particularly remarkable, as detective stories go, but that the whole class of literature to which it belongs is, in its conception of life and the relations of mankind, so entirely modern. Mr. Julian Hawthorne is fitted to make the best out of such material, and it is not often that one will meet with more clever, telling work than his opening chapters here. It is not until he gets in the midst of affairs, when facts and art refuse to go together without straining, that the true aspect of the effort as a concession to popularity becomes apparent. It is not much to say of such a tale that it is absorbingly interesting, for the same may be said of almost every story of a similar nature. Yet when that is said, all is said, and perhaps the continually rushed and overworked Americans should be thankful for anything that can break the tedium of a railway journey.

As one might easily judge from the title, 'Jill and Jack' is a light, superficially written novel. It is hastily constructed, sufficiently amusing inasmuch as it is short, and built on a plot improbable enough to be striking in spite of its triteness. The love-affair of Jill and Jack is quaintly pleasant from the self-deceit which they both practise; but that of Gaston and Miss Morton, which really furnishes the mechanism of the story, is too heavily loaded therewith to be either natural or entertaining.

A more delightful satire than the first paper of Mr. Benjamin's collection of a yachtsman's facts and fancies is, of necessity, rare. The hero of the tale, who is a Scotchman and a member of Parliament, is shipwrecked on a tropical island. After four years of solitude a Boston lady, who had become a citizen of New York, is sent by fate to be his companion. For a long time they live on terms of the merest acquaintanceship, communicating chiefly by means of notes. When they have finally fallen in love in the most approved fashion, they philosophically lay aside their scruples, and, changing from Episcopalians to Presbyterians, they are married according to the laws of their respective States by declaration—notwithstanding the fact that she has turned out to be his deceased wife's sister. In Parliament he had often spoken against the bills to allow such marriages. In order to secure their children from the danger of dying without the rite of baptism, they at last become Baptists, when they feel that they can safely postpone the rite until the children are grown. Nothing else in the book compares with this tale, which, with a single exception, is the only one that has not already been printed in the magazines.

For a thoroughly depressing novel 'A Game of Chance' is to be recommended. A more vivid portrayal of the ugliness of respectable poverty, or a more complete collection of unworthy characters, would be, in every respect, undesirable. While the picture of Charley Melrose and his unlovely family may be a true enough one in its way, it serves no good purpose in being painted. Poverty is not necessarily degrading; nor is it true that every one who is poor, yet who is capable of appreciating the benefits of wealth, is continually longing after the fleshpots, and resisting but faintly the temptation to speculate and rob.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, W. J. Blue Jackets of 1812: A History of the Naval Battles of the Second War with Great Britain. To which is Prefixed an Account of the French War of 1789. Illustrated. Dodd, Mead & Co. $3.

Baldwin, J. Elementary Psychology and Education: A Text-Book for High Schools. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Ballads of Romance and History. Illustrated. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.

Bamford, Mary E. The Look-About Club and the Curious Live Things They Found. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $1.50.

Bocock, K. Tax the Area: A Solution of the Land Problem. J. W. Lovell Co. 20 cents.

Brooks, E. S. The Story of the American Indian. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. $2.50.

Browning, R. Lyrics, Idyls, and Romances. From his Poetic and Dramatic Works. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.

Bruce, W. Old Homestead Poems. Illustrated. Harper & Brothers.

Bynner, E. L. Damen's Ghost. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 50 cents.

Campbell, A. Captain Macdonald's Daughter. A Novel. Harper & Brothers.

Crawford, S. W. The Genesis of the Civil War: The Story of Sumter. 1860–1861.

Ebers, G. Richard Lepsius: A Biography. Wm. S. Gottsberger.

Ford, H. The Theory and Practice of Archery. New ed. Revised by W. Butt. Longmans, Green & Co.

Foreman, A. Big Wages and How to Earn Them. Harper & Brothers.

Foster, W. Reports of Decisions Rendered by the Supreme Court of the Hawaiian Islands. Vol. V. Honolulu: Gazette Co.

Fouqué, La Motte. Sintram and his Companions. Aslauga's Knight. Cassell & Co. 10 cents.

Frey, A. R. Sobriquets and Nicknames. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $3.

Froebel, F. The Education of Man. (International Education Series. Vol. V.) D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Gilkes, A. H. Boys and Masters: A Story of School Life. 2d ed. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.25.

Harper's Young People. 1887. Harper & Brothers.

Harrison, W. J. A History of Photography. Scovill Manufacturing Co. $1.

Hawthorne, J. An American Penman. From the Diary of Inspector Byrnes. Cassell & Co. $1.

Holmes, Margaret. Recitations for Christmas. Indianapolis: Charles A. Bates. 25 cents.

Jamison, Mrs. C. V. The Story of an Enthusiast, told by Himself. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.

Johonnot, J. Stories of Our Country. D. Appleton & Co.

Keller, O. Thiere des Classischen Alterthums in Culturgeschichtlicher Beziehung. Innsbruck: Wagner'schen Universitäts-Buchhandlung.

Kluge, Prof. F. Etymologisches Wörterbuch der Deutschen Sprache. 4th ed. Strassburg: K. J. Trübner.

Lathbury, Mary A. Twelve Times One. Illustrations of Child Life. Worthington Co. $1.75.

Laughlin, J. L. The Elements of Political Economy. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.

Laughton, J. K. Studies in Naval History: Biographies. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.

Lea, H. C. History of the Inquisition of the Middle Ages. In 3 vols. Vol. I. Harper & Brothers. $3.

Loew, W. N. Magyar Songs; or, Selections from Modern Hungarian Poets. Samisch & Goldmann.

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